

CAPITAL AND LABOR

WITH LETTERS AND SPEECHES BY EMINENT MEN,

ON

PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE

AND OTHER ECONOMIC SUBJECTS.

ALSO

THE HISTORY AND PROGRESS OF MANUFACTURING AND
COMMERCIAL INDUSTRIES.

COMPILED BY WILLIAM KEYS.

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PREFACE.



In laying this work before the Public, we do not intend to make any invidious distinctions between Capital and Labor, but rather to show how their interests are identical, and that a spirit of mutual dependence should mingle with the cordial relations that ought to exist among all the members that comprise both parties.

The strength and power of Capital, when properly utilized and distributed, with a generous regard for the comfort and welfare of those who labor to produce it, may be considered as a mighty means of developing and advancing the progress and interest of whole communities.

Although it cannot be denied that many great Capitalists in their inordinate desire to acquire wealth, completely ignore those whose muscles and sinews are placed at their disposal, yet we have many noble examples of employers of labor who realize that their employees are human beings, and are entitled to the same consideration that they receive themselves.

The scope of the present work is to give the history and details of the great commercial enterprises of our vast Dominion; to give a brief sketch of the leading men whose ability and business capacity have raised them to eminence in their different positions; and an expression of opinion by eminent men on protection and free trade and other economic subjects.



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CAPITAL AND LABOR.

THAT ALONE WHICH IS PRODUCED BY LABOR IS CAPITAL ; MONEY IS MERELY THE MEDIUM OF EXCHANGE.

CAPITAL is the result of labor which has been accumulated and which serves as an aid to production. All products which, instead of being consumed immediately, aid in the production of objects of consumption, are capital. Cotton and wool are products to the farmer ; they become the capital of the spinner and weaver, who transform them into muslins and cloths ; cloths become capital for the tailor, who makes them into garments.

The capital of society is composed of all the products, implements, materials, and knowledge which aid production.

Gold and silver are at present the legalized representatives of value, and consequently these alone are the medium of exchange of all other values. It follows, therefore, that to possess gold is to possess the means of procuring capital, without which it is impossible to produce ; to be without it is to be compelled, in order to live, to become dependent upon those who possess it. Those who possess gold and silver are at present the only capitalists, truly speaking, for all those who require capital are compelled to apply to them. It is this fact which has given rise to the belief that capital is nothing but the result of saving. Let us consider as capital, not merely gold and silver, but all that which aids and assists production, and we shall see that savings, gold and silver, far from being capital, are in themselves sterile and unproductive.

How can man increase the extent of his knowledge—agricultural, industrial, artistic, or scientific—other than by working ? Can he create, perfect, invent unlimited implements and machinery which aid him in production, in any other way than by labor ? He cannot cultivate and improve the land without labor, nor can he construct roads and canals, build railroads and steamships without work. Capital is formed and increased by labor, and by labor alone.

When man performs labor he has two distinct ends in view : first, to satisfy his daily wants ; second, to create and augment capital. The less labor required for the first, the greater is the amount remaining for the second. The more industry develops, the less is the labor required to satisfy the daily wants of man, and the more time has he to apply himself to the formation of capital. In this way every new discovery, all which facilitates labor, amounts to an increase of the capital of society.

But it is not sufficient to increase the means of production merely ; it is necessary to increase the means or facilities of consumption at the same time. Of what benefit can it be if elevators are overstocked with grain and storehouses are filled to repletion with merchandise, if those who are in want of them do not earn sufficient to purchase them ? It is not capital which is scarce at the present day, it is the means of obtaining the articles manufactured, so that they may be consumed.

The more we save the more we impose privation upon ourselves, and the less there is produced ; production being stopped, the formation of capital is arrested instead of being increased. On the contrary, the more each one produces and consumes, the greater is the increase of capital ; since, besides the products which we consume daily, the more we labor the more we cultivate and improve the land, the more we prepare new materials and perfect the instruments of labor, the more houses we construct, the more ships we build, and the more we facilitate intercommunication, the faster do we increase capital.

Alas ! saving, instead of increasing capital, decreases production, and consequently increases the want of employment and privation ; and yet it is at the present time a sad necessity. While no one is certain of the morrow, while the rich are in constant fear of bankruptcy, the poor of enforced idleness and hunger, all are compelled to save to prepare for future contingencies.

Since without gold and silver it is impossible to secure the capital necessary to production, the possessors of these metals will not consent to lend them for a given time to those who want them, except upon the con-

dition of having their share of the products without contributing to the production. Such is interest; this parasite which enables so many killers to live at the expense of those who labor.

Interest is just in principle as is rent; but rent and interest must be understood and practised very differently from what they are at present. The instruments of labor—tools, machinery, etc.—wear out and must be replaced. It is natural that the laborer should pay a sum equal to this *use* or *expense*, or rather this *expense* should be paid by the consumer, in adding it to the cost of production. But is it so in the loaning of money? From ten to fifteen years' interest replaces or returns the capital loaned, and yet the capital is still due, so that the capitalist is paid for the use of a capital which is for him never consumed and never deteriorates. Dr. Price once made a calculation in which he showed clearly that one English penny, or two cents, loaned at compound interest at the birth of Christ up to the year 1773, would have produced a solid mass of gold equal in size to 150,000,000 of globes of the size of our earth. This calculation in itself is quite sufficient to prove the absurdity of interest.

Interest on money is no more justifiable than is rent of land. The capital of society has been formed by the combined efforts of all past generations, and it is as unjust to pay to a favored few an interest upon capital which has been formed by all, as to pay to a favored few rent for land which was made by no one. It has been said—"If the Creator of the land presents His bill, we will pay Him His rent;" and we may say, with equal truth—Let the past generations, who have formed the capital of the world, demand their interest, and we will pay them rent for the use of land. Interest on money and profits in commerce are the causes of the opulence and idleness of the few, and of the misery and degradation of the masses. At the same time rent, interest, and profit, are the necessary consequences of the monopolization of capital by the privileged few. They will disappear only with the disappearance of the fiction of the right of individual property, which implies the right to the abuse, as well as to the use, of one's things, which abuse is the source of all the miseries of society.

Possession is the right to use. With it man may enjoy; but the moment that he ceases to use a thing or render it productive, he ceases to have the right; the thing should return to the public domain until another possessor comes to render the thing productive.

If land and capital belonged only to society, and the laborer, without depending upon employer, capitalist or proprietor, could enjoy the full fruits of his labor, and be at liberty to produce and consume according to his tastes and aptitudes, receiving always for his labor something which possessed an equal amount of labor, paying for the use of these things only their actual cost into the public treasury, interested in the increase of the capital of society, as all would enjoy and use it, free from the harassing cares of the morrow, disengaged from selfish and sordid thoughts, which are suggested by badly organized social surroundings, enabled henceforth to educate and develop himself, the laborer would cease entirely to be the brutalized and ignorant being which he now frequently is. He would feel himself, and really be, a unit of the body, intelligence and heart of society.

Labor does not create the material upon which it operates; it modifies it. It is not, therefore, for the product, but for the labor expended upon the product, to which the laborer has a right. If for property, possession simply were substituted, there would be neither monopolists, speculators, nor wage-slaves. All would become functionaries of society, rewarded for their labor to the extent of having all they produced by their labor, having no right to sell either the materials, the tools, machinery, or instruments of labor with which they would be furnished by society. In speaking of tools and machinery, or instruments of labor, it is not intended to apply to such tools as are of individual use, and which each laborer, at his pleasure, might hold as personal property.

In agricultural products, the labor of man and nature is combined. If the agriculturist be permitted to appropriate to himself the total products of the land, he enjoys not only the result of his own labor, but also the labor of nature; which is not equitable. All lands are not equally good and fertile. If the farmer is left free to dispose of products, would it be just? Would equity of conditions exist between the farming of rich and fertile plains and those of arid sands; between the cultivation of elevated lands, where the air is pure and healthy, and that of swamps and marshes infected with malaria, and fevers, and impurities? In fact, between lands equally fertile and healthy, would there be equity between the farmer who had an abundant harvest and he whose crop had been destroyed by hail, drought, inundation, or other disaster? Land is, therefore, but an "instrument of labor" to those whose function it is to cultivate it. The farmer should be rewarded for his labor, and, the crops being gathered, the products should be garnered into storehouses, thence to be delivered to the consumer; as exchange and distribution naturally follow production. Function is not less necessary in industry. Many products are of more value than others, not because they demand

more labor than others, but because of the superior quality or of the greater value of the raw material upon which the labor is expended. When the laborers are left to dispose of their products, which embody both the raw material and their labor, privilege for the few becomes instituted from that moment. Nearly all human labor demands the employment of a collective force. The making of a silk hat, for instance, is divided into five or six branches, each branch being performed by a different person. Evidently each person is entitled to a part of the price which is paid for the hat when finished. If a watch passes through twenty hands in order to be completed, which of the twenty should be paid? Evidently an equitable proportion should go to all, for if all participate in the labor, all should participate in the distribution, each one for the quantity of labor which he or she has performed.

In a word, every man should be an industrial functionary in one or the other of the six industries, or some branch thereof, which go to make up the activities of man as they express themselves in society, and have the right to the use of the tools, instruments, and materials necessary to that function; but having the power to dispose as he pleases only at the value of his personal labor.



HIS EXCELLENCY, THE EARL OF ABERDEEN.

WHEN Lord Aberdeen came to Canada in September, 1893, he was no stranger to the country in which he was destined to occupy the important position of Governor General. He had, during several previous years, made visits to the Dominion, in which he had many friends. The provinces of Ontario and British Columbia had been especially favored in this way. In 1891, with his family, he spent some time in Hamilton, Ont., occupying the residence of Senator Sandford, and became extremely popular with the public of that charming city. His ready sympathy and powerful support of every project for the advancement of the best interests of the community won the admiring esteem of all.

In that year (1893) Lord Aberdeen made a trip to British Columbia, and was so greatly impressed with the promise of a magnificent future afforded by the natural and acquired advantages of that fortunate province, that he invested largely in land, taking up thousands of acres, on a part of which he established a horse ranch, the stock-breeding being for Imperial Army purposes. He also established in the same locality a thriving and extensive fruit and jam factory.

But, while in these and other ways, the name of Lord Aberdeen became a household word in the Dominion, it is not amiss to recall that ere he had crossed the Atlantic his fame as the most popular nobleman preceded him. During his

tenancy of Ireland, his tact, philanthropy and unostentatious generosity, won admiration from all. He was only thirty-three years of age when he became tenant of Aberdeenshire. To the dignity of High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of

Scotland. His Excellency is a nobleman, who was born in 1855. The Earl is there. He was educated at Oxford, in 1871, and of M.A. in 1877.

He entered the House of Lords as a Conservative, but in the session of 1876 he disagreed with some of the principal measures of his party, and when, two years later, the Earls of Derby and Carnarvon resigned their offices, Lord Aberdeen supported their views. He subsequently became a member of the Liberal party, and was one of its best debaters in the House of Lords.

In the year 1877 the Earl of Aberdeen made a tour of the United States, and made several addresses there on the Home Rule question.

It bears testimony to the reality of Lord Aberdeen's kindness and generosity that, on the occasion of his leaving Ireland, on the expiry of his term of office as Viceroy there, the scene in Dublin was such as had never been witnessed in that city since the leave-taking of Lord Fitzwilliam in 1795. Lord and Lady Aberdeen have, during many years, led Liberal society in England. He is a valuable friend and adherent of Mr. Gladstone.

Lord Aberdeen's able and efficient aid has ever been given to every movement which had for its object the advancement of the religious and civil interests of the public. He has been, throughout his career, in the highest and best sense of the word, a public-spirited man. He is a member of numberless philanthropic and religious societies, and has accomplished an amount of good for his fellow-men that will earn for his name an enduring fame.

The enthusiasm which greeted the news of Lord Aberdeen's appointment to the position of Governor-General of Canada, has not abated one whit since his first arrival to take up his abode in the Canadian Capital as Her Majesty's representative. He entered upon his term of office with the hearts of the people strongly pre-possessed in his favor, and to-day the sentiments which found vent then in hearty speeches of welcome and enthusiastic receptions, is more fervent than ever, because founded now upon a grateful appreciation of the qualifications which render Lord Aberdeen so fit a recipient of the vice-regal honors.



grandson of the fourth Earl Prime Minister from 1852 to the seventh of his line. and took the degree of B.A. 1877.

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HER EXCELLENCY, THE COUNTESS OF ABERDEEN.

LADY ABERDEEN is a daughter of Sir Dudley Coutts Mavorbanks, first Lord Tweedmouth. She is a noble woman, sharing in the fame which the career of her illustrious husband has won for his ancient name.

Her Excellency is possessed of a fine appearance, the mingled dignity and urbanity of her manners having a peculiar charm. She is decidedly handsome, above the medium height, fair of complexion, and wearing an expression of candour and sincerity. Her culture, kindliness of heart, and strength of character render her an efficient aid to Lord Aberdeen in the important positions which it has been his lot to fill.

Lady Aberdeen has always been considered in England a woman of progressive ideas, and her life has been far from an idle one. During her stay at Dublin Castle, in 1866, her exertions for the improvement of the condition of the Irish peasantry accomplished much that has made her name a household word. She organized the Irish Industries Association, which aims at developing home industries among the poor of that country.

Another philanthropic heart has been set during the progress of this. This is a league which has of a more sisterly interest in life, more particular to the ladies and their families many thousand members.

Lady Aberdeen has long been regarded as an apt and able political campaigner in speeches in favor of Mr. Gladstone's policy to very large and appreciative audiences in Ireland.

Upon Lord Aberdeen's estate in Scotland, the Countess is greatly aided by her own personal exertions, of their servants and retainers. She established a social circle which she herself presides in, in the welfare of each member, and its attractions on current topics abroad, and exerts a benevolent influence in social and domestic circles, far and near.

In the training of her children, Lady Aberdeen has evinced the same soundness of judgment and loftiness of sentiment which distinguish her social relation. Her only daughter, Lady Marjorie Gordon, seems to have inherited her mother's philanthropic and literary tastes. At a very early age she, under her mother's guidance, became the editress of a monthly magazine for children, called "Wee Willie Winkie." Lord and Lady Aberdeen have also three sons.

The residence of their Excellencies in Canada has been attended throughout with benefit to the best interests of the country, and the fact that their social influence has been so decided, must be attributed largely to the generous self-forgetfulness of the Countess, who has taken an active part in Canadian society, displaying the most unerring tact, as well as a kindly condescension, on all occasions, which charmed every heart.

That the Countess of Aberdeen is pre-eminently fitted for the high and important positions which she has occupied in this country and in Ireland, is attested by the degree of affectionate interest with which she is regarded by all who have come in contact with her during her husband's term of office. She has played a difficult part with singular grace and tact, and towards her there has gone out a fervent admiration and sincere affection that incontestably prove her right to hold, and that in no mere conventional sense, the place of first lady in the land. Her personal qualities, independently of her high rank, are such as to have earned for her an unusual measure of love and respect.



scheme upon which her recent years is the foundation of the Haddo House Association, for its object the fostering among women of every station, however, among mis-servants. The league numbers and associates.

been known in London as a politician, and during a certain time in England she made several Gladstone's policy to very effect both in Scotland and

estate in Scotland, the amiable. She has, by her own efforts, made the lives of her subjects bright and happy. Years ago she founded a literary club, over which she presides with a personal interest. The fame of this organization, at which distinguished persons are invited to take part, has spread a beneficial influence in social and

SIR MACKENZIE BOWELL, K.C.M.G.

THERE is probably no more interesting sketch in this work than that of Sir Mackenzie Bowell, who began life as a poor boy, and his risen to the exalted position of Premier of the Dominion has many helpful and encouraging lessons to the young men of Canada, whose only inheritance is willing hands and good sound common sense to guide them through life. He was born in 1823 in Rickingham, England, and came with his parents to Canada when he was nine years of age, and settled in the County of Hastings. His father was a builder by trade, but followed the occupation of farmer after coming to Canada. At the age of twelve years he entered a printing office, and it is characteristic of the man that in the office of the *Belleville Intelligencer*, in which he started as printer's devil, he came to be the editor and proprietor.

His capacity for leadership and his fitness for public trusts seem to have been early recognized, for he was yet a young man when his fellow-citizens asked him to take a place in the school government of Belleville. He was for many years afterwards chairman of the Board of Education. It was in 1863 that he first became a candidate for a seat in the Legislative Assembly of Old Canada. Upper Canada, now Ontario, at that time was crying out for the repeal of the Separate School Act, to which Mr. Bowell refused to become a party, on the ground that ranted to Roman Catholics when Canada was ceded to liament of Upper and Lower hewould prefer defeat rather such a policy. After being that they would realize their upon to record their votes prediction proved true for himself before the electors he was elected by a much by which he was defeated cident in Sir Mackenzie's ed from the very beginning country successfully states- creed nor rationality.

He entered Parliament and quickly became identi- of the House. Six years John Macdonald was swept of Conservative opposition which built up Sir Mac-Parliamentarian. When Sir placed at the head of the Mackenzie was given the portfolio of Minister of Customs, which he held for 13 years. During that long period the National Policy was developed, and it fell to his lot to carry it into practical operation.

At the death of Sir John Macdonald the late Sir John Abbott was called upon to re-organize the Government, and requested Sir Mackenzie to accept the portfolio of Minister of Militia. When Sir John Thompson formed his Government in 1892, Sir Mackenzie accepted the new Department of Trade and Commerce which required a man of great ability and tact. At the same time he was called to the leadership of the Senate,—after having represented North Hastings in the Commons for twenty-five years. He has been twenty-eight years in Parliament, closely identified with all that has gone on during that long period, and yet his name is not besmirched by so much as the breath of scandal or accusation. As Premier of the Dominion he brings his ripe experience, his far-seeing statemanship, his unsullied integrity and great capacity to the service of his country.

The character of Hon. Mackenzie Bowell, independently of his intellectual powers, inspires a high degree of personal respect, even in minds of those most opposed to him, and in expressing the hope that a long and useful public career is before him, we express a universal sentiment. Certain it is that the fame which he has achieved is at least as pure and lofty as is any to be found on the page of our country's history. He has shown us that he possesses both the will and the power to do much for the Dominion.



certain rights had been gua- under the Treaty of Paris, the British, and by the Par- Canada, and stated that than to pledge himself to defeated he told the electors mistake ere they were called at another election, which when he again presented of North Hastings, in 1867 larger majority than that four years before. This in- life shows that he had learn- the fact that to govern a men must know neither

therefore, at Confederation fied with the active work later the Government of Sir from power, and the days began. These were the days kenzie's reputation as a John Macdonald was again Government in 1878, Sir

PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE.

BY JOHN STUART MILL.

OF INTERFERENCES OF GOVERNMENT GROUNDED ON ERRONEOUS THEORIES.

FROM the necessary functions of government, and the effects produced on the economical interests of society by their good or ill discharge, we proceed to the functions which belong to what I have termed, for want of a better designation, the optional class; those which are sometimes assumed by governments and sometimes not, and which it is not unanimously admitted they ought to exercise.

Before entering on the general principles of the question, it will be advisable to clear from our path all those cases, in which government interference works ill, because grounded on false views of the subject interfered with. Such cases have no connection with any theory respecting the proper limits of interference. There are some things with which governments ought not to meddle, and other things with which they ought; but whether right or wrong in itself, the interference must work for ill, if government, not understanding the subject which it meddles with, meddles to bring about a result which would be mischievous. We will, therefore, begin by passing in review various false theories, which have from time to time formed the ground of acts of government more or less economically injurious.

Former writers on Political Economy have found it needful to devote much trouble and space to this department of their subject. It has now happily become possible, at least in our own country, greatly to abridge this purely negative part of our discussions. The false theories of Political Economy which have done so much mischief in times past, are entirely discredited among all who have not lagged behind the general progress of opinion; and few of the enactments which were once grounded on those theories, still help to deform the statute book. As the principles on which their condemnation rests, have been fully set forth in other parts of this treatise, we may here content ourselves with a few brief indications.

OF THESE FALSE THEORIES, THE MOST NOTABLE IS THE DOCTRINE OF PROTECTION TO NATIVE INDUSTRY.

A phrase meaning the prohibition, or the discouragement by heavy duties, of such foreign commodities as are capable of being produced at home. If the theory involved in this system had been correct, the practical conclusions grounded on it would not have been unreasonable. The theory was, that to buy things produced at home was a national benefit, and the introduction of foreign commodities, generally a national loss. It being at the same time evident that the interest of the consumer is to buy foreign commodities in preference to domestic whenever they are either cheaper or better, the interest of the consumer appeared in this respect to be contrary to the public interest; he was certain, if left to his own inclinations, to do what according to the theory was injurious to the public.

It was shown, however, in our analysis of the effects of international trade, as it had been often shown by former writers, that the importation of foreign commodities in the common course of traffic, never takes place, except when it is, economically speaking, a national good, by causing the same amount of commodities to be obtained at a smaller cost of labor and capital to the country. To prohibit, therefore, this importation, or impose duties which prevent it, is to render the labor and capital of the country less efficient in production than they would otherwise be; and compel a waste of the difference between the labor and capital necessary for the home-production of the commodity, and that which is required for producing the things with which it can be purchased from abroad. The amount of national loss thus occasioned is measured by the excess of the price at which the commodity is produced, over that at which it could be imported. In the case of manufactured goods, the whole difference between the two prices is absorbed in indemnifying the producers for waste of labor, or of the capital which supports that labor. Those who are supposed to be benefited, namely, the makers of the protected articles (unless they form an exclusive company, and have a monopoly against their own countrymen as well as against foreigners), do not obtain higher profits than other people. All is sheer loss to the country as well as to the consumer. When the protected article is a product of agriculture

—the waste of labor not being incurred on the whole produce, but only on what may be called the last instalment of it—the extra price is only in part an indemnity for waste, the remainder being a tax paid to the landlords.

The restrictive and prohibitory policy was originally grounded on what is called the mercantile system, which, representing the advantages of foreign trade to consist solely in bringing money into the country, gave artificial encouragement to exportation of goods, and discountenanced their importation. The only exceptions to the system were those required by the system itself. The materials and instruments of production were the subjects of a contrary policy, directed, however, to the same end; they were freely imported, and not permitted to be exported, in order that manufacturers, being more cheaply supplied with the requisites of manufacture, might be able to sell cheaper, and, therefore, to export more largely. For a similar reason, importation was allowed and even favored, when confined to the productions of countries which were supposed to take from the country still more than it took from them, thus enriching it by a favorable balance of trade. As part of the same system, colonies were founded, for the supposed advantage of compelling them to buy our commodities, or at all events not to buy those of any other country; in return for which restrictions, we were generally willing to come under an equivalent obligation with respect to the staple productions of the colonists. The consequences of the theory were pushed so far, that it was not unusual even to give bounties on exportation, and induce foreigners to buy from us rather than from other countries, by a cheapness which we artificially produced, by paying part of the price for them out of our own taxes. This is a stretch beyond the point yet reached by any private tradesman in his competition for business. No shopkeeper, I should think, ever made a practice of bribing customers by selling goods to them at a permanent loss, making it up to himself from other funds in his possession.

The principle of the mercantile theory is now given up even by writers and governments who still cling to the restrictive system. Whatever hold that system has over men's minds, independently of the private interests exposed to real or apprehended loss by its abandonment, is derived from fallacies other than the old notion of the benefits of heaping up money in the country. The most effective of these is the specious plea of employing our own countrymen and our national industry, instead of feeding and supporting the industry of foreigners. The answer to this is evident. Without reverting to the fundamental theorem respecting the nature and sources of employment for labor, it is sufficient to say, what has usually been said by the advocates of free trade, that the alternative is not between employing our own people and foreigners, but between employing one class and other of our own people. The imported commodity is always paid for, directly or indirectly, with the produce of our own industry; that industry being, at the same time, rendered more productive, since, with the same labor and outlay, we are enabled to possess ourselves of a greater quantity of the article. Those who have not well considered the subject are not apt to suppose that our exporting an equivalent in our own produce, for the foreign articles we consume, depends on contingencies—on the consent of foreign countries to make some corresponding relaxation of their own restrictions, or on the question whether those from whom we buy are induced by that circumstance to buy more from us; and that, if these things, or things equivalent to them, do not happen, the payment must be made in money. Now, in the first place, there is nothing more objectionable in a money payment than in payment by any other medium, if the state of the market makes it the most advantageous remittance; and the money itself was first acquired, and would again be replenished, by the export of an equivalent value of our own products. But, in the next place, a very short interval of paying in money would so lower prices as either to stop a part of the importation, or raise up a foreign demand for our produce, sufficient to pay for the imports. I grant that this disturbance of the equation of international demand would be in some degree to our disadvantage in the purchase of other imported articles; and that a country which prohibits some foreign commodities, does, *ceteris paribus*, obtain those which it does not prohibit, at a less price than it would otherwise have to pay. To express the same thing in other words: a country which destroys or prevents altogether certain branches of foreign trade, thereby annihilating a general gain to the world, which would be shared in some proportion between itself and other countries, does, in some circumstances, draw to itself, at the expense of foreigners, a larger share than would else belong to it of the gain arising from that portion of its foreign trade which it suffers to subsist. But even this it can only be enabled to do, if foreigners do not maintain equivalent prohibition or restrictions against its commodities. In any case, the justice or expediency of destroying one of two gains, in order to engross a rather larger share of the other, does not require much discussion; the gain, too, which is destroyed, being, in proportion to the magnitude of the transactions, the larger of the two, since it is the one which capital, left to itself, is supposed to seek by preference.

Defeated as a general theory, the protectionist doctrine finds support in some particular cases, from con-

siderations which, when really in point, involve greater interests than mere saving of labor: the interests of national subsistence and of national defence. The discussions on the corn laws have familiarized everybody with the plea, that we ought to be independent of foreigners for the food of the people; and the navigation laws were grounded, in theory and profession, on the necessity of keeping up a "nursery of seamen" for the navy. On this last subject I at once admit, that the object is worth the sacrifice; and that a country exposed to invasion by sea, if it cannot otherwise have sufficient ships and sailors of its own, to secure the means of manning on an emergency an adequate fleet, is quite right in obtaining those means, even at an economical sacrifice in point of cheapness of transport. When the English navigation laws were enacted, the Dutch, from their maritime skill and their low rate of profit at home, were able to carry for other nations, England included, at cheaper rates than those nations could carry for themselves; which placed all other countries at a great comparative disadvantage in obtaining experienced seamen for their ships of war. The navigation laws, by which this deficiency was remedied, and at the same time a blow struck against the maritime power of a nation with which England was then frequently engaged in hostilities, were probably, though economically disadvantageous, politically expedient. But English ships and sailors can now navigate as cheaply as those of any other country; maintaining at least an equal competition with the other maritime nations even in their own trade. The ends which may once have justified navigation laws, require them no longer, and afford no reason for maintaining this invidious exception to the general rule of free trade.

With regard to subsistence, the plea of the protectionists has been so often and so triumphantly met, that it requires little notice here. That country is the most steadily, as well as the most abundantly, supplied with food, which draws its supplies from the largest surface. It is ridiculous to found a general system of policy on so improbable a danger as that of being at war with all the nations of the world at once; or to suppose that, even if inferior at sea, a whole country could be blockaded like a town, or that the growers of food in other countries would not be as anxious not to lose an advantageous market, as we should be not to be deprived of their corn. On the subject, however, of subsistence, there is one point which deserves more especial consideration. In cases of actual or apprehended scarcity, many countries of Europe are accustomed to stop the exportation of food. Is this, or not, sound policy? There can be no doubt that in the present state of international morality, a people cannot, any more than an individual, be blamed for not starving itself to feed others. But if the greatest amount of good to mankind on the whole, were the end aimed at in the maxims of international conduct, such collective churlishness would certainly be condemned by them. Suppose that in ordinary circumstances the trade in food were perfectly free, so that the price in one country could not habitually exceed that in any other by more than the cost of carriage, together with a moderate profit to the importer. A general scarcity ensues, affecting all countries, but in unequal degrees. If the price rose in one country more than in others, it would be a proof that in that country the scarcity was severest, and that by permitting food to go freely thither from any other country, it would be spared from a less urgent necessity to relieve a greater. When the interests, therefore, of all countries are considered, free exportation is desirable. To the exporting country considered separately, it may, at least on the particular occasion, be an inconvenience; but taking into account that the country which is now the giver, will in some future season be the receiver, and the one that is benefited by the freedom, I cannot but think that even to the apprehension of food-rioters it might be made apparent, that in such cases they should do to others what they would wish done to themselves.

In countries in which the system of protection is declining, but not yet wholly given up, such as the United States, a doctrine has come into notice which is a sort of compromise between free trade and restriction, namely, that protection for protection's sake is improper, but that there is nothing objectionable in having as much protection as may incidentally result from a tariff framed solely for revenue. Even in England, regret is sometimes expressed that a "moderate fixed duty" was not preserved on corn, on account of the revenue it would yield. Independently, however, of the general impolicy of taxes on the necessities of life, this doctrine overlooks the fact, that revenue is received only on the quantity imported, but that the tax is paid on the entire quantity consumed. To make the public pay much that the treasury may receive a little, is not an eligible mode of obtaining a revenue. In the case of manufactured articles the doctrine involves a palpable inconsistency. The object of the duty as a means of revenue, is inconsistent with its affording, even incidentally, any protection. It can only operate as protection in so far as it prevents importation; and to whatever degree it prevents importation, it affords no revenue.

The only case in which, on mere principles of political economy, protecting duties can be defensible, is when they are imposed temporarily (especially in a young and rising nation) in hopes of naturalizing a foreign industry, in itself perfectly suitable to the circumstances of the country. The superiority of one coun-

try over another in a branch of production, often arises only from having begun it sooner. There may be no inherent advantage on one part, or disadvantage on the other, but only a present superiority of acquired skill and experience. A country which has this skill and experience yet to acquire, may in other respects be better adapted to the production than those which were earlier in the field; and besides, it is a just remark of Mr. Rae, that nothing has a greater tendency to promote improvements in any branch of production, than its trial under a new set of conditions. But it cannot be expected that individuals should, at their own risk, or rather to their certain loss, introduce a new manufacture, and bear the burthen of carrying it on until the producers have been educated up to the level of those with whom the processes are traditional. A protecting duty, continued for a reasonable time, will sometimes be the least inconvenient mode in which the nation can tax itself for the support of such an experiment. But the protection should be confined to cases in which there is good ground of assurance that the industry which it fosters will after a time be able to dispense with it; nor should the domestic producers ever be allowed to expect that it will be continued to them beyond the time necessary for a fair trial of what they are capable of accomplishing.

The only writer of any reputation as a political economist, who now adheres to the protectionist doctrine, Mr. H. C. Carey, rests its defence, in an economic point of view, principally on two reasons. One is, the great saving in cost of carriage, consequent on producing commodities at or very near to the place where they are to be consumed. The whole of the cost of carriage, both on the commodities imported and on those exported in exchange for them, he regards as a direct burthen on the producers, and not, as is obviously the truth, on the consumers. On whomsoever it falls, it is, without doubt, a burthen on the industry of the world. But it is obvious (and that Mr. Carey does not see it, is one of the many surprising things in his book) that the burthen is only borne for a more than equivalent advantage. If the commodity is bought in a foreign country with domestic produce in spite of the double cost of carriage, the fact proves that, heavy as that cost may be, the saving in cost of production outweighs it, and the collective labor of the country is on the whole better remunerated than if the article were produced at home. Cost of carriage is a natural protecting duty, which free trade has no power to abrogate; and unless America gained more by obtaining her manufactures through the medium of her corn and cotton, than she loses in cost of carriage, the capital employed in producing corn and cotton in annually increased quantities for the foreign market, would turn to manufactures instead. The natural advantage attending a mode of industry in which there is less cost of carriage to pay, can at most be only a justification for a temporary and merely tentative protection. The expenses of production being always greatest at first, it may happen that the home production, though really the most advantageous, may not become so until after a certain duration of pecuniary loss, which it is not to be expected that private speculators should incur in order that their successors may be benefited by their ruin. I have, therefore, conceded that in a new country, a temporary protecting duty may sometimes be economically defensible; on condition, however, that it be strictly limited in point of time, and provision be made that during the latter part of its existence it be on a gradually decreasing scale. Such temporary protection is of the same nature as a patent, and should be governed by similar conditions.

The remaining argument of Mr. Carey in support of the economic benefits of protectionism, applies only to countries whose exports consist of agricultural produce. He argues, that by a trade of this description they actually send away their soil; the distant consumers not giving back to the land of the country, as home consumers would do, the fertilizing elements which they abstract from it. This argument deserves attention, on account of the physical truth on which it is founded; a truth which has only lately come to be understood, but which is henceforth destined to be a permanent element in the thoughts of statesmen, as it must always have been in the destinies of nations. To the question of protectionism, however, it is irrelevant. That the immense growth of raw produce in America to be consumed in Europe, is progressively exhausting the soil of the Eastern, and even of the older Western States, and that both are already far less productive than formerly, is credible in itself, even if no one bore witness to it. But what I have already said respecting cost of carriage, is true also of the cost of manuring. Free trade does not compel America to export corn; she would cease to do so, if it ceased to be to her advantage. As, then, she would not persist in exporting raw produce and importing manufactures any longer than the labor she saved by doing so exceeded what the carriage cost her; so, when it becomes necessary for her to replace in the soil the elements of fertility which she had sent away, if the saving in cost of production were more than equivalent to the cost of carriage and of manure together, manure would be imported, and if not, the export of corn would cease. It is evident that one of these two things would already have taken place, if there had not been at hand a constant succession of new soils, not yet exhausted of their fertility, the cultivation of which enables her, whether judiciously or not, to postpone the question of manure. As soon as it no longer answers better to break up new soils than to manure

the old, America will either become a regular importer of manure, or will without protecting duties grow corn for herself only, and manufacturing for herself, will make her manure, as Mr. Carey desires, at home.

For these obvious reasons, I hold Mr. Carey's economic arguments for protectionism to be totally invalid. The economic, however, is far from being the strongest point of his case. American protectionists often reason extremely ill, but it is an injustice to them to suppose that their protectionist creed rests upon nothing superior to an economic blunder; many of them have been led to it much more by consideration for the higher interests of humanity, than by purely economic reasons. They, and Mr. Carey at their head, deem it a necessary condition of human improvement that towns should abound; that men should combine their labor, by means of interchange, with near neighbors—with people of pursuits, capacities, and mental cultivation different from their own, sufficiently close at hand for mutual sharpening of wits and enlarging of ideas—rather than with people on the opposite side of the globe. They believe that a nation all engaged in the same, or nearly the same, pursuit—a nation all agricultural—cannot attain a high state of civilization and culture. And for this there is a great foundation of reason. If the difficulty can be overcome, the United States, with their free institutions, their universal schooling, and their omnipresent press, are the people to do it; but whether this is possible or not, is still a problem. So far, however, as it is an object to check the excessive dispersion of the population, Mr. Wakefield has pointed out a better way: to modify the existing method of disposing of the unoccupied lands, by raising their price, instead of lowering it, or giving away the land gratuitously, as is largely done since the passing of the Homestead Act. To cut the knot in Mr. Carey's fashion, by protectionism, it would be necessary that Ohio and Michigan should be protected against Massachusetts as well as against England; for the manufactories of New England, no more than those of the old country, accomplish his desideratum of bringing a manufacturing population to the doors of the Western farmer. Boston and New York do not supply the want of local towns to the Western prairies, any better than Manchester; and it is as difficult to get back the manure from the one place as from the other.

There is only one part of the protectionist scheme which requires any further notice: its policy towards colonies and foreign dependencies; that of compelling them to trade exclusively with the dominant country. A country which thus secures to itself an extra foreign demand for its commodities, undoubtedly gives itself some advantage in the distribution of the general gains of the commercial world. Since, however, it causes the industry and capital of the colony to be diverted from channels which are proved to be the most productive, inasmuch as they are those into which industry and capital spontaneously tend to flow; there is a loss, on the whole, to the productive powers of the world, and the mother country does not gain so much as she makes the colony lose. If, therefore, the mother country refuses to acknowledge any reciprocity of obligation, she imposes a tribute on the colony in an indirect mode, greatly more oppressive and injurious than the direct. But if, with a more equitable spirit, she submits herself to corresponding restrictions for the benefit of the colony, the result of the whole transaction is the ridiculous one, that each party loses much, in order that the other may gain a little.

MONOPOLIES—COMBINATION LAWS.

Governments, however, are oftener chargeable with having attempted, too successfully, to make things dear, than with having aimed by wrong means at making them cheap. The usual instrument for producing artificial dearness is monopoly. To confer a monopoly upon a producer or dealer, or upon a set of producers or dealers not too numerous to combine, is to give them the power of levying any amount of taxation on the public, for their individual benefit, which will not make the public forego the use of the commodity. When the shares in the monopoly are so numerous and so widely-scattered that they are prevented from combining, the evil is considerably less; but even then the competition is not so active among a limited, as among an unlimited number. Those who feel assured of a fair average proportion in the general business, are seldom eager to get a larger share, by foregoing a portion of their profits. A limitation of competition, however partial, may have mischievous effects quite disproportioned to the apparent cause. The mere exclusion of foreigners, from a branch of industry open to the free competition of every native, has been known, even in England, to render that branch a conspicuous exception to the general industrial energy of the country. The silk manufacture of England remained far behind that of other countries of Europe, so long as the foreign fabrics were prohibited. In addition to the tax levied for the profit, real or imaginary, of the monopolists, the consumer thus pays an additional tax for their laziness and incapacity. When relieved from the immediate stimulus of competition, producers and dealers grow indifferent to the dictates of their ultimate pecuniary interest; preferring to the most hopeful prospects, the present ease of adhering to routine. A person who is

already thriving, seldom puts himself out of his way to commence even a lucrative improvement, unless urged by the additional motive of fear lest some rival should supplant him by getting possession of it before him.

The condemnation of monopolies ought not to extend to patents, by which the originator of an improved process is allowed to enjoy, for a limited period, the exclusive privilege of using his own improvement. This is not making the commodity dear for his benefit, but merely postponing a part of the increased cheapness which the public owe to the inventor, in order to compensate and reward him for the service. That he ought to be both compensated and rewarded for it, will not be denied, and also that if all were at once allowed to avail themselves of his ingenuity, without having shared the labors or the expenses which he had to incur in bringing his idea into a practical shape, either such expenses and labors would be undergone by nobody, except very opulent and very public-spirited persons, or the state must put a value on the service rendered by an inventor, and make him a pecuniary grant. This has been done in some instances, and may be done without inconvenience in cases of very conspicuous public benefit; but in general an exclusive privilege, of temporary duration, is preferable; because it leaves nothing to any one's discretion; because the reward conferred by it depends upon the invention's being found useful, and the greater the usefulness the greater the reward; and because it is paid by the very persons to whom the service is rendered, the consumers of the commodity. So decisive, indeed, are those considerations, that if the system of patents were abandoned for that of rewards by the state, the best shape which these could assume would be that of a small temporary tax, imposed for the inventor's benefit, on all persons making use of the invention. To this, however, or to any other system which would vest in the state the power of deciding whether an inventor should derive any pecuniary advantage from the public benefit which he confers, the objections are evidently stronger and more fundamental than the strongest which can possibly be urged against patents. It is generally admitted that the present patent laws need much improvement; but in this case, as well as in the closely analogous one of copyright, it would be a gross immorality in the law to set everybody free to use a person's work without his consent and without giving him an equivalent. I have seen with real alarm several recent attempts, in quarters carrying some authority, to impugn the principle of patents altogether; attempts which, if practically successful, would en throne free stealing under the prostituted name of free trade, and make the men of brains, still more than at present, the needy retainers and dependents of the men of money-bags.



SIR DONALD ALEXANDER SMITH, M. P., K.C.M.G.

AMONG the many illustrious men, whose names will descend to posterity for their eminent service in connection with the development and progress of Canada, that of Sir Donald A. Smith will always hold the foremost place and ever be regarded with love and admiration. He is held in the highest veneration by all classes of his fellow-countrymen, and he enjoys a world-wide reputation for everything that is good, noble and generous.

Through a long, active and enterprising life, he has always been actuated by the highest motives and no single individual in Canada has done more to promote the advancement of the country, to develop its industries and resources, and to alleviate the distresses or promote the well being of his fellow men.

Sir Donald Alexander Smith, son of the late Alexander Smith, of Archieston, Scotland, was born in Morayshire in 1820, and came to Canada when very young. He entered the service of the Hudson's Bay Company at an early age, and has been connected with them ever since. He was promoted step by step through various positions and became Commissioner, Director, and was the last resident Governor of that vast corporation as a governing body,—a grand tribute to his sixty years of unfailing zeal and enterprise. The early period Company was full of difficulties for transportation had to undergo many privations surmounted all obstacles and he will always be regarded as the "Pioneer principal promoter for the and the North West Territory appointed an Executive comparatively unknown as a special commissioner to the first Riel Rebellion in 1869-70, for which he was and thanked by the Government, the great services he rendered on that occasion. He represented in the Manitoba Legislature was elected member of Parliament Canadian House of Commons and was unanimously re-elected Montreal West, to represent in 1887 and 1891, which When the Dominion government transferred the Canadian Pacific Railway to a

few other prominent men took it over, and it is almost superfluous to remark how his administrative ability and business experience has conduced to the success of that enterprise, of which he is one of the largest shareholders. His many years of patient struggling and toil for the future development of the country were supremely rewarded when he struck in the last spike of the railway at Craigallachia, B.C., on November 7th, 1885. Besides his connection with the above two important companies, he is largely interested in many financial and industrial concerns, in addition to being a patron and supporter of the educational and benevolent institutions of the city. His name is so deeply engraven in the hearts of Canadian people that the highest honor at their disposal would be bestowed upon him without the slightest hesitation.

His unostentatious private charities for the relief of the distressed have rendered his name a "household word" among the masses by whom he is universally beloved. His vast fortune has enabled him to donate immense sums for the advancement of science and art, and his munificent gifts for the extension of McGill College will perpetuate his name for all generations. On the occasion of Her Majesty's Jubilee in 1887, Sir Donald, in conjunction with Lord Mount Stephen, gave a million dollars for the building and endowment of the "Victoria Jubilee Hospital," a princely gift that is almost unparalleled. Like many other great philanthropists, Sir Donald Smith is anxious to see for himself the working and development of his great benevolent schemes and his unselfish modesty relieves him of all affectation of pride or ostentation. Although so deeply engrossed in these many important affairs, he is an active member of the Board of Trade and is keenly alive



to every measure that is produced for the increase of trade and commerce. He laid the foundation stone of the present extensive Board of Trade buildings on May 29th, 1892, an event which will be commemorated in the future history of Montreal.

He is governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, president of the Bank of Montreal, vice-president of the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba Railway Company, director of the Great Northern Railway Company of Minnesota, U.S., a director of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and chancellor of the McGill University. He received the honor of K. C. M. G. from Her Majesty the Queen in 1886, and was honored with LL.D. by Cambridge and Yale Universities. His various beautiful residences are located at Silver Heights, Manitoba; Norway House, Pictou, N. S.; 1157 Dorchester street, Montreal; and Glencoe, Scotland. Address, Hudson's Bay House, Montreal; No. 1 Lime street, London, and Athenæum Club.

In politics he is an Independent Liberal Conservative, but of course is unable to devote much time to the ordinary details of his parliamentary duties, which is regretted by none more so than the Labor Reformers. Like all master minds of the present day, he is greatly interested in the labor problem, and gives considerable time and study to its solution. He is keenly alive to the necessity of something being done to ameliorate the condition of his less fortunate fellow-citizens, and keeps himself thoroughly posted on matters of interest to the workers. Notwithstanding his great wealth and the high social position he occupies, his voice has been heard on several occasions on the floor of the House of Commons, advocating the cause of the toiling masses, in whose welfare he is deeply interested. It is fervently hoped by all classes of Canadians that he will live many years to enjoy the many great honors conferred on him, and that greater ones are yet to come.

THE HUDSON BAY COMPANY.

SIXTEEN hundred and seventy is memorable in the annals of progress and discovery, as the date of the Charter granted by Charles II. to Prince Rupert of Bavaria and seventeen other noblemen and gentlemen, incorporating them as the "Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay," and securing to them "the sole trade and commerce of all those seas, straits, bays, rivers, lakes, creeks, and sound, in whatsoever latitude they shall be, that lie within the entrance of the straits commonly called Hudson's Straits, together with all the lands and territories upon the countries, coasts, and confines of the seas, bays, etc., aforesaid, that are not already actually possessed by, or granted to, any of our subjects, or possessed by the subjects of any other Christian prince or state."

The circumstances which led to the signal favor thus conferred by the Merry Monarch upon a foreign prince are deeply interesting, and are interwoven with the history of that eventful epoch. He was a son of the Elector Palatine Frederick V. and Elizabeth, daughter of James the First of England, and was, therefore, a nephew of Charles I. and Charles II. He was born at Prague 1609. Having previously served against the Imperialists in the Thirty Years' War, he entered the Royalist Army in England, and was appointed by his uncle, Charles I., commander of a regiment of cavalry. He distinguished himself by his energy and headlong courage at Worcester and Edgehill, and took Bristol, but subsequently suffered defeat at Marston Moor. Being made general of all the royal forces, he commanded the left wing at Naseby. Owing to his rash pursuit of Cromwell's army while the main body remained on the field, the day was lost. He was, in consequence, deprived of his command by the King; but three years later he obtained command of the fleet, and assisted Lord Ormond on the coast of Ireland. He was blockaded in the harbor of Kinsale by the Parliamentary Squadron under Blake. Having forced his way out he steered for Portugal, where he was protected by the king of that country. Rupert subsisted for some time by piracy in the neighborhood of the West Indies. The Restoration in 1660 brought his uncle, Charles II., to the throne, and turned the tide of fortune in the adventurer-prince's favor. His services during the civil war were remembered, and the brilliant scheme of the "Company of Adventurers" was smiled upon by the King.

The limits proscribed by the Charter were vague, and after some discussion, arising during subsequent years from time to time, the Company agreed to accept the terms, as meaning all lands watered by streams

flowing into Hudson's Bay. Besides the complete lordship and entire legislative, judicial and executive power within these limits, the corporation received also the right to "the whole and entire trade and traffic to and from all havens, bays, creeks, rivers, lakes, and seas into which they shall find entrance or passage by water or land out of the territories, limits, or places aforesaid."

To the first settlement was given the name of Rupert's Land. It was situated to the east of James Bay. A long time elapsed before there was any advance into the interior, for we find that in 1749, when an unsuccessful attempt was made in Parliament to deprive the Company of its charter, it had only some four or five forts on the coast, with about one hundred and twenty regular employes. The plea made use of in this attempt was that of neglect on the part of the Company, or, to use a technical expression, it was a plea of "non-user." Notwithstanding this apparent lack of vigor, the commercial success of the enterprise was from the first immense, although great losses, amounting, previous to the year 1700, to £215,514, were inflicted on the Company by the French, who sent military expeditions against the forts.

The conquest of Canada by Great Britain, in 1763, altered the conditions of things. A great number of individual fur-traders spread over the country, rivalling one another in the keenness of their trade, and presently encroaching upon the territories of the Hudson Bay Company. The strength of the great corporation finally caused these traders to combine, under the name and style of "The North-West Fur Company of Montreal." A fierce competition at once sprang up between the rival companies, and when it is remembered that their dealings were with savages, it will be readily granted that the strife was marked by features which could not fail to demonstrate the advantages of a monopoly in commercial dealings with uncivilized tribes. The Indians were demoralized utterly by the abundance of intoxicating liquors with which the rival traders sought to attract them to themselves; the supply of furs threatened soon to be exhausted by the indiscriminate slaughter, in season and out of season, of both male and female animals; the worst passions of both white men and Indians were inflamed to a fierce heat, and destruction of human life and property was the result.

An incident of a later date may serve to illustrate the relations of rival companies under such conditions. In 1811, the fifth Earl of Selkirk, who had devoted special attention to emigration as a means of providing for the surplus population of the Scottish Highlands, obtained from the Hudson's Bay Company a grant of land in the district now known as Assiniboin. His agent, Mr. Miles Macdonell, founded, in 1813, a settlement on the banks of the Red River; the first fort being at Pembina. By 1814 the settlers numbered 200. The North-West Fur-Traders of Manchester did all they could, by force and fraud, to break up this colony, which, by 1816, had taken up its quarters where the City of Winnipeg now stands. The French-Indian half-breeds were incited against it, and its mills and houses were burned. The Earl of Selkirk betook himself to the scene, and succeeded in re-organizing the community, to which the name of Kildonan was given. He found himself personally involved in a very network of intrigue; but the colony was saved.

Time works wonders, and in 1821 the Hudson's Bay Company and their rivals, now exhausted by a fruitless strife, amalgamated, obtaining a license to hold for twenty-one years the monopoly of trade in the vast regions lying to the west and north-west of the older company's grant.

In 1838, Hudson's Bay Company acquired the sole rights for itself, obtaining also a new license. This was again for twenty-one years, and on its expiry it was not renewed, and since 1859 the district has been to all. Since that date the only advantage enjoyed by the Hudson's Bay Company has been contained in its own splendid organization.

The licenses to trade did not affect the original possessions of the Company, and it retained these until 1869, when they were transferred to the British Government for £300,000. In 1870 they were incorporated with the Dominion of Canada.

The Company, which now trades entirely as a private corporation, still retains one-twentieth of the entire grant, together with valuable blocks of land round the various forts. Its history has been unique. A halo of romance will always cling about its name, and no history of our country can fail to give place to a recital of the deeds and far-reaching schemes of this great corporation.

The benefits rendered by the Company in opening up a new country hitherto untrodden by the white man, will ever make the history of its early adventurers, their dangers and triumphs, a subject of keenest interest to the lover of progress, and to all minds interested in the spread and advancement of civilization. Many are the tales that linger of the hardships endured, and the perils encountered in the wild region that bore the name of the adventurer-prince. Some account of the life of that time and locality may not be amiss here.

The posts of the Company, being planted at the confluence or the parting of streams, offered opportunities

in long routes of travel for occasional intercourse with the Indians, whose hospitality was freely extended. Their food on these occasions consisted mainly of pemmican, which was usually prepared from buffalo flesh, although it might also be of moose meat, or venison. It was prepared by the squaws, the flesh of the slaughtered animals, after the hide had been carefully removed for domestic use or for trade, being torn into strips, dried in the sun or by the fire, pounded into crumbs, and then packed in a leathern bag. A quantity of hot fat was turned into the bag and stirred, and then carefully closed from the air. As prepared by the uncleanly savages, this meat was generally far from agreeable.

One of the most difficult and unavailing of the efforts of the white men was to overcome in the Indians their habits of wanton waste and improvidence. Their life was spent between alternatives of gluttonous gorgings of food, when it was abundant, and protracted sufferings to reach, by various stages, the grim reality of starvation. The natives held firmly to the belief that the more game they slaughtered the more rapidly would the animals multiply; so, in a rich hunt, they would leave the plains strewn with carcasses quite beyond their means of transportation. The narrations of the servants of the Company give many instances of the dreadful emergencies to which these miserable savages were reduced, ending, as a last resource, in cannibalism.

Many volumes are extant giving full details of the experiences of the "winterers" in solitary posts. That dismal isolation must have had appalling features yet untold. Yet we find in the annals of the Company that all the exactions of the situation were met patiently and faithfully by all, and that habit made them so tolerable, and then even so attractive that, as men grew old in the service, they found their solace in such seclusion, with the occasional interruptions which came to them in the course of the year. Once in each year a mail was sent by the Company to all its posts. Canoe men and dog teams, and in side branches a voyageur, or native runner, would be the carriers. The Company's London office was the receiving depot of all letters, papers, or parcels passing between its servants and their friends at home. All took care to be well supplied, at their posts, with materials for correspondence. The few books which could be carried to the outposts were carefully interchanged. A file of the London "Times," a year old when it fell into the possession of a lucky exile, would serve for a year's perusal.

Twice a year occurred the exciting scenes which attended the arrival and departure of brigades of voyageurs, or bands of natives, with the spoils of the hunt or chase. Many have been the stories told of the trading-room. The natives were admitted singly within its precincts. No specie or paper currency was used, the convenient medium of exchange being found in bundles of little sticks held by the clerk. A beaver represented the unit of value, and the tariff of other skins rose or fell by a fixed estimate. The native would open his pack, and, after the careful examination of its contents by the clerks, he would receive an answering number of these sticks. When all the natives had passed singly through this process, another apartment was in the same manner made accessible to them, one by one. Here they found goods and wares in abundance. These, too, had their fixed prices by the tariff. The purchaser had ample time to make his selection, and when his choice was given he paid for the required amount in sticks. The trade being closed, the Indians, laden with their goods, took their way into the wilds. Then the clerks at the posts had their own well-defined task before them, to sort out the peltries which had been gathered in, and arrange them in packages for transfer across the ocean to the London warehouse. This was a process requiring much skill and practice. Some of the choicest skins needed to be treated with great care, as a very slight blemish would mar their value.

The life led by these brave and hardy pioneers and adventurers was thus full of hardship and privation. A romantic love of peril and daring would, no doubt, account for the presence in that wild region of many a solitary watcher, but the stern necessities of life and his own dismal loneliness must soon have removed all glamor from the situation, and have called into prominence all the latent strength of his nature. After the operations of the Company had extended into the vast country lying to the west of Hudson's Bay, the names given to some of the most distant and dreary of the northern posts on MacKenzie's River, and the Great Slave Lake, seem to have been intended to keep up the spirits of their occupants. Thus we have "Providence," "Reliance," "Resolution," "Enterprise," "Good Hope," and "Confidence."

It has been, perhaps inevitably, too much the way to find the principal interest in the Hudson Bay Company Annals, to lie in the tales they give of romantic adventure, scenes in wild life, events of exploration, and the occupations and scenes pertaining to the hunting and trapping expeditions, and the contrast of savagery with civilization. The excitement and pleasure of such narrations have led attention away too often from the positive benefits to the world that resulted from their explorations. In their earlier years they were accused of warning others away from the inclement and inhospitable shores where their own wealth was gained, but

it must not be forgotten that in 1769 an expedition, solely for purposes of exploration, and in the interests of the country, was formed and sent into the unknown North by the resident Governor of the Company. This expedition was led by Samuel Hearne, and under his leadership was twice repeated, being, on the last occasion, in 1770, attended with some success, as he traced the Coppermine River to its mouth, and was the first European who crossed the Arctic circle.

In 1836, and again in 1838, the Company organized and sent out Arctic expeditions at its own charges. The British Government recognized this service by conferring a baronetcy on the London Governor of the Company, and knighthood on the local Governor, while the two leaders of the expedition received pensions. No advantage in the special object to which the Company restricted its aims accrued to it from any successes gained in these explorations.

In 1837, when the license for exclusive trade with the natives had expired, and the Governor of the London Company asked of the Crown a prospective renewal for twenty-one years further, the Company was able to show a good cause. The appeal was a strong one. They claimed to have preserved peace on the frontiers, to have kept the Russians from trespassing, and to have favored polar and other explorations. They had made efforts for the improvement and civilization of the country.

At the date just mentioned the Company had so strengthened itself on the Pacific coast, that they had existing sixteen establishments on the coast and sixteen in the near interior. They maintained also in that region several migratory and hunting parties, and six armed vessels, one a steamer, in the Pacific. At the same time they were able to report a most satisfactory condition of things in the Indian Territory. The liquor traffic with the natives had been suppressed, and the whole community was in a tranquil and comparatively prosperous condition. The Company was seen to be supporting and promoting discovery, science, and surveys at great expense.

Much interest attaches to the events and negotiations that in 1870 culminated in the incorporation of the possessions of the Company with the Dominion of Canada. Novel and important elements conduced to that result. The country was rapidly colonizing, and becoming, consequently, less and less valuable as a reserve for fur-bearing animals. Disputes and difficulties had arisen from time to time regarding boundary lines. In 1867 an Act, designated the "Rupert's Land Act," made it competent for the Company to surrender, and for the Queen to accept, all the lands, privileges, rights, etc., granted to the Company by its charter.

The terms secured by the Company were certainly of a most generous character, and testified to the importance of the position held in national estimation by this venerable corporation. The Company was still in its corporate capacity to be allowed to carry on its trade, and was to be paid for its franchise the sum of £300,000 by the Canadian Government. It was to retain the fee of all its posts and stations, with a reservation of an additional block of land at each of them, together with one-twentieth section of a "fertile belt," to be afterwards decided. All titles of land that had been heretofore given by the Company were to be confirmed. The reserved lands thus covenanted to the Company made up an area of 45,160 acres. No better testimony could be rendered to the value of the Company's operations than that offered by the generosity of these terms.

Nor must we forget, in considering the various benefits that have sprung from the granting of that charter by Charles II. to the "Company of Adventurers," to reflect upon the many books, forming, indeed, an important part of the literature of travel, to which its existence has given birth. Many of them have been written by amateurs from the old world who, from a love of adventure or of hunting, made transient visits to the great Canadian forests. Noblemen and gentlemen are conspicuous on the lists of such authorship, and their narrations lack neither in romance or marvel. But far more comprehensive and communicative of authentic and interesting information is a successive series of works, beginning with the early enterprises of the Hudson Bay Company, and written mainly by those who have been for long periods in its service, and who have, with graphic power, given to us their experiences. These cover the details of daily life and duty at the Company's posts, long tramps on snow-shoes and with dog-sledges over the snow-buried and nearly interminable wilds, and tortuous courses by lake, river, cascade and portage, in the summer season. They told of the ways and doings of the Indians. These historians of the Hudson Bay Company were bright, intelligent and observant. Those who began as the apprentices of the Company were usually young Scotch peasants from the Orkneys. They were required to pass a close examination, mental, moral, and physical. They were sent, on arrival in America, to the furthest posts, and were expected to devote their lives, with promotion in prospect, to the Company's service. For the most part, such books as we refer to were written with vivacity, and are full of interest, portions testifying to the fairness of the Company's treatment of the Indians, and to the wise and kindly character of its dealings with them.

Occasional travellers visiting the outposts of the Company, have ever been unanimous in praise of the courtesy and hospitality they received.

The Directors of the Company at the present time are as follows:—Governor, Sir Donald Smith, K.C.M.G.; Deputy-Governor, the Earl of Lichfield; Committee, Sanford Fleming, C.M.G.; Russell Stephenson, Esq.; W. Vaughan Morgan, Esq.; Thomas Skinner, Esq.; and John Coles, Esq.



SIR CHARLES HIBBERT TUPPER, K.C.M.G., Q.C., M.P.

Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, the second son of Sir Charles Tupper, Bart, G.C.M.G., C.B., was born at Amherst, Nova Scotia, August 3, 1855. He was educated at Windsor Academy, in the County of Hants, N.S., and at McGill University, Montreal, where he won the Governor-General's scholarship. He graduated as Bachelor of Laws at Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., and was admitted to the Nova Scotia Bar in 1878, and was appointed a Q.C. in 1890. In 1882 he was nominated for and defeated the veteran Liberal champion, Mr. Carmichael for the House of Commons by 284 votes.

In 1887 he was re-elected for Pictou County by a majority of 595 votes, and in June, 1888, being called to the Cabinet, he joined the Administration as Minister of Marine and Fisheries, and returning to Pictou County was elected by acclamation. At the general elections of 1891 his majority was 725 votes. During the same year he was selected to assist the British Ambassador at Washington in the discussion of regulations for fur seals.

In June, 1892, Mr. Tupper was chosen to represent Her Majesty as agent for Great Britain in the Rehring Sea arbitration, which met at Paris, during February, 1893. The unremitting zeal and ability which he bestowed upon the preparation manner in which his work acknowledged on behalf of mediately after the close of closely by Imperial honors, Commander of St. Michael dom that such a compliment of the Crown as was con- sage from Lord Ripon:—

"Without waiting off-award, I will not delay con-Tupper's success as British dom of the sea, and in main-Canadian ships, while at Dominion Government for to give his valuable services

During his administra- Marine and Fisheries, he had ing the shipping of cattle to designed to provide for the transportation of cattle from Atlantic. This legisla- tionary legislation being adopt- great deal of live stocks in

ance premiums. "An Act to provide for marking of deck load lines." This was intended to provide a Canadian load line mark more suitable to Canadian built vessels than the load line mark imposed by the Imperial Government. Its adoption lessened the severity proposed in English legislation touching Canadian ships. "An Act to provide for the hulls and equipment of sailing vessels being kept in a good sea-worthy condition." "An Act to amend the Safety of Ships Act." It was discovered that gunpowder and other highly dangerous explosives were being carried in a careless manner on passenger steamboats. This Act forbids any dangerous explosive being taken on board any passenger steamer without the permission of the Minister. "Steamboat Inspection Act." Numerous amendments had to be made to this Act. The principal ones were taking the rules and regulations under which boilers were inspected and engineers examined, and placing them under the control of the Government in Council. "An Act to consolidate 'The Department of Marine and Fisheries.'" This was the outcome of the re-organization scheme of the Minister of Marine and Fisheries. New and improved rules for the inspection of marine boilers and examination of engineers, and for the regulation of boats and lifeboats to be carried by passenger steamers were promulgated. At the death of the late Sir John Thompson Sir Hibbert was appointed Minister of Justice—a position he filled with marked ability. He retired from the Cabinet in January 1896 on the occasion of his father entering the Cabinet as Sec. of State.

Sir Charles Tupper was married in September, 1879, to Janet, daughter of the Hon. James McDonald, Chief Justice of Nova Scotia. There is a family of six children.



of the case, and the efficient was done, and formally the British Government in- the arbitration, followed being created a Knight and St. George. It is sel- has been paid to any servant tained in the following mes-

cial text of arbitration gratulations to Canada upon agent, in asserting the free- taining the legal rights of the same time thanking the having spared the Premier as arbitrator."

tion of the Department of carried: "An Act respect- European ports," which was security, health and safe Canada to ports across the has prevented the prohibi- ed in England, saved a transit and reduced insur-

SIR ADOLPHE CARON.

The Caron family is ancient and honourable. Its recent history is interwoven with that of the fair Dominion, whose interests more than one of this now illustrious name has served so well. It is not a little thing to come of a race famed alike for patriotic deeds and lofty principles. A sentiment must move the scions of such a family that will surely incite them to emulate the lives of their fathers, and result in a brighter fame for the descendants of worthy progenitors.

The subject of this sketch, the Hon. Sir Joseph Philippe René Adolphe Caron, is the eldest surviving son of the late Hon. R. E. Caron, Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec. He was born in the city of Quebec in 1843, and was educated at the Seminary of Quebec, at Laval University, and at the University of McGill, in Montreal. In 1865 he graduated from the last named institution with the degree of B.C.L. His profession had been early decided upon, and in the offices wherein he studied he had the advantage of very distinguished lawyers as preceptors. The first of these was L. C. Baillairgé, Q.C. Later, he studied in the office of the late Sir John Rose. He was, from the first, eminently successful, being early called to the bar of Lower Canada, and a few years later being appointed a Queen's Counsel.

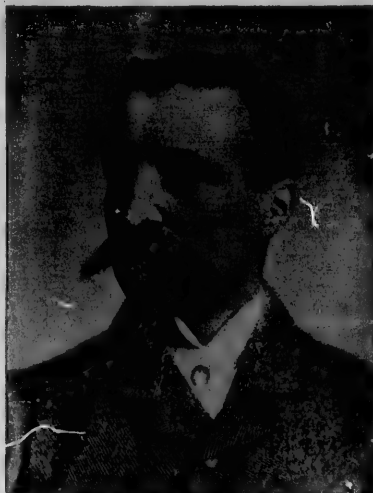
He commenced practitioner of a firm no longer and influential in its day. The senior partner dying being appointed to a justice-organized under the style,

At this time, with Caron, besides giving to his tion, was forming promidirections. He was, in Literary and Historical became a director of the many ways attracted public able, and useful member of

As might be expected, prominence, and sought 1872, at Bellechase, but secure election. In March, however, and was returned Quebec, in the House of has had a seat there ever elected by acclamation. His long attracted the attention John A. Macdonald, who politician had in him the making, not only of an able minister, but of a popular one, and with that shrewdness which showed itself in gathering about him the best talent of the land, he signaled his recognition of Mr. Caron's worth, and the latter was sworn in a member of the Privy Council, November 9th, 1880, and appointed Minister of Militia.

Five years after his appointment to this important office, there came from the far North-West the startling tidings that several policemen and civilians had fallen before a body of armed rebels. The circumstances were of peculiar difficulty, it being the inclement winter season, and the theatre of the rebellion inaccessible by rail, while almost interminable stretches of wilderness intervened. A weak or incapable Minister of Militia would have failed before so grave a problem. Hon. Mr. Caron was not, however, dismayed, and acting with promptitude and firmness, he grappled successfully with the situation. With astonishing celerity troops were placed at different points in the territories, and it is doubtful whether there is to be found in war annals a record showing more promptness of design and action than this uprising enabled our militia department to display. His Excellency the Governor-General communicated to the Imperial Government his opinion of the efficiency of the Minister of Militia, and recommended that he obtain recognition from the Crown. Then it was that the honor of Knighthood was conferred upon the Postmaster General.

He married, in 1867, Alice, only daughter of the late Hon. Francis Baby, who represented Stadacona division in the Legislative Council for years



tice in Quebec City as a existing, but well known Andrews, Caron & Andrews. and Mr. Andrews, junior, ship, the firm was re-Caron, Pentland & Stuart. characteristic energy, young profession a zealous attention connections in other 1867, vice-president of the Society of Quebec. He Stadacona Bank, and in attention as a sagacious, the community.

he was soon drawn into parliamentary honours in failed in this first contest to 1873, he was successful, to represent the County of Commons, at Ottawa. He since, and has twice been great abilities before very of the then Premier, Sir perceived that the rising

HON. SENATOR GEORGE A. DRUMMOND.

THE history of Montreal might easily be written in the biographies of a few men in each generation. As, in each succeeding period, the country in general advanced, a few forethoughtful and courageous men recognized the coming changes and guided the destinies of the city so as to keep it always in front of its opportunities. For the most part they have been successful men; but when they succeeded the city succeeded. They identified themselves with its existence; upon its fortune they staked their own, over and over again, and in its prosperity they prospered. In the years immediately succeeding 1847, blow after blow had fallen upon Montreal. The old commercial system had been shattered, and the people were discouraged. But they were being forced by adversity into new methods. The industrial era was approaching, and the pioneers in that movement were the Redpaths, and identified with that ever respected family was the subject of our sketch, George Alexander Drummond.

Now that Montreal has become a manufacturing city, it is difficult to realize how great was the enterprise of introducing into Canada so important a manufacture as the refining of sugar. The change is marvelous. The extending streets and far-reaching suburbs tell of thousands of families dependent upon the tall chimneys whose smoke ob- of our early youth, and Birmingham. Mr. Redpath when he entered on this new large fortune as a con- again in the erection of an gress of the country justified the late Mr. Peter Redpath, Drummond, he had the as- business was successful from was at first John Redpath style, although at a very became a partner. Of Mr. present business to speak. honor roll of Montreal. He chant, and upon him fell the possibility, while Mr. Dr. n- managing the refinery with of wresting a profit out of cesses which, if not carried more apt to result in loss.

It is not the province points in political science made *en passant*. During refinery the price of refined sugar in Montreal never was permitted to exceed that current in the markets elsewhere. If, then, the people of Montreal have never had to pay a fraction or a cent more than if the factory had never existed, surely there was an advantage in having the work done here; surely it is better that such profits as may accrue should be spent in the country, and overflow in a hundred ways into the general current of its progress. The business of sugar refining is not an exotic. It may be carried on upon the banks of the St. Lawrence as naturally as upon the banks of the Clyde, the Hudson, or the Elbe. In the latter case, however, the profits of the operation will aggrandize the cities of Glasgow, New York, and Hamburg, while in the former they will be spent in the city of Montreal.

Mr. Drummond was born in Edinburgh in the year 1828. He received a thorough education in the University of Edinburgh, supplemented, before he came to Canada, by special studies in applied chemistry. His father was a contractor, and had many large undertakings in which his sons, after they left college, assisted him. The eldest, Mr. Andrew Drummond, came to Canada to the Commercial Bank, and afterwards entered the Bank of Montreal. He became manager of various branches in succession, and finally, manager of the branch at Ottawa, where still lives, having retired upon a pension. One of the daughters had long previously become the second wife of Mr. John Redpath, and had been residing in Montreal. The youngest son, George Alexander, the subject of this sketch, married Miss Helen Redpath, a daughter of Mr. John Redpath by his first marriage, and was thus bound to that family by a double tie.



scures the sunny blue sky makes our city a western was far advanced in years career. He had amassed a tractor, and this he risked immense refinery. The pro- his confidence. In his son, and his son-in-law, Mr. sistance he needed, and the the very start. The firm & Son, and so remained in early period Mr. Drummond Peter Redpath it is not our His name is written on the had been trained as a mer- financial and mercantile res- mond assumed the task of its host of operatives, and complicated technical pro- out with great skill, are

or this paper to discuss moot but one remark may be the whole history of the

In the year 1854 Mr. Drummond came to Montreal, and immediately assumed the care of the manufacturing part of the business. For this he was eminently fitted both by nature and by training, as the result has clearly shown. His great natural abilities had been improved by education, and his constitution, naturally vigorous, had been strengthened by a fondness for outdoor exercise. Added to this, his experience in his experience in his father's business had taught him the control of men and the mechanical knowledge required in the conduct of a large factory. He was, therefore, master of the position from the first, and able to lead the large staff under his management. He was never at the mercy of any employee, but knew his business both on its theoretical and its practical side.

The command of men requires similar gifts whether in the field or in the factory. The expression "captain of industry" is not a mere phrase, for a real identity underlies the metaphor, and the closer the relation is studied the clearer the analogy appears. To direct a large body of men towards one aim requires far more than the technical knowledge of a merely technically-instructed man. In addition, a resolute will, quick insight and power of organization is needed, and these Mr. Drummond possessed. The hands were treated with consideration and fairness. A workingman is keenly alive to the least injustice, but respects a firm hand with fair dealing. There was never any trouble at the Redpath refinery. Year after year the business went on increasing. Doubtless there were occasional periods of loss, for sugar refining is very sensitive to the vicissitudes of commerce; but skilful management carried the business to a high degree of success—a success which, in time, raised up competitors; but which succeeded, and still succeeds, in keeping it at the head of the few which still survive in Canada.

From his first arrival Mr. Drummond identified himself with Canadian life—with all its business interests and out-door exercises as well as with such public interests as were compatible with the close attention his duties required. Not many years after he settled at Montreal the American civil war broke out, and during five or six years the country was kept in a fever by threats of foreign war. The spirit of the Canadians was aroused at the danger, and the young men flocked to form volunteer corps of all arms. Among them was a troop of picked cavalry, composed of young men mounted on their own horses, and all good cross-country riders. It was a dashing troop—the Royal Guides—and one of the best mounted and most zealous troopers in it was the young Scotchman, already Canadian at heart. In this troop he did duty on the frontier on the occasion of the Fenian raid in 1866. It is something to have lived in Montreal then. The old town had not improved away all its quaintness. Business was very good and excitement ran high. Sometimes matters seemed very serious and sometimes very much the opposite. England poured her choicest troops into the colony. The streets were bright with uniforms—the scarlet tunics and the bearskin shakos of the guards; the floating plumes of the Highland regiments; the dark-green, quick-stepping columns of the rifles; the blue uniforms of the hussars, and the gold lace and dark-blue of the horse artillery, made the streets flash with color under the bright blue sky, for the era of smoke was only just commencing.

Fortunately, however, the war-cloud, with all its picturesque excitement, passed away, and the young men drifted again into the prosaic channels of commerce and manufactures. More and more tall chimneys went up and the town extended, and with it Mr. Drummond and his partners prospered. They took an interest in all that might in any way further the advancement of the country. Besides his own business, Mr. Drummond aided in the introduction of new industries, in developing copper mines, coal mines, and slate quarries. These were not in every instance successful, but he was not afraid of risk or depressed by loss. In politics all the Redpath connection was Conservative, and in 1873 Mr. Drummond was induced to become a candidate in Montreal West for the House of Commons. Sir George Cartier ran at the same time in Montreal East, and both were defeated. The indomitable energy of Sir George had been sapped by the disease which shortly after carried him off, and there were some who turned against him in his weakness. Mr. Drummond was opposed by a very strong candidate, and his special qualifications did not consist in those gifts which are necessary to capture the popular vote; besides, the Conservative party had been a long time in power. It had made some mistakes, and a change was impending.

In 1873 the Conservative Ministry resigned, and the new Government had different views on matters of trade policy, and soon rearranged the tariff. The sugar duties are, under all circumstances, difficult to adjust and difficult to understand. The margin of profit is always very narrow, and the Redpath firm found themselves in such a position that their business could only be carried on at a loss. Their insight and decision did not forsake them, and they resolved that it was better to make a loss at first rather than to dissipate their capital in a losing struggle. The importation of raw sugar was stopped, and they manufactured and sold off all their stock on hand. Their moveable plant was disposed of, and all their hands were dismissed but a few rusted guardians of the property. The great factory was closed, the tall chimney ceased to smoke, and the

families who depended upon it for a living were dispersed. The partners recognized the truth of the maxim, that "there is a time for all things under the sun." There is a time to refine sugar and a time to cease from refining, and they saw that the latter time had come.

And now may plainly be seen the use of a liberal education; the value of a habit of reading, persevered in despite of business cares; the importance of retaining the power of study, and an interest in literature and art. For want of these resources of leisure men often fail when they seem to succeed; but to Mr. Drummond this unlooked for leisure in the prime of life was a new opportunity. He removed to England with his family, and three or four years were spent in studying and enjoying the manifold treasures of science, literature, and art which Europe offers to those who can receive them. He had been one of the founders of the Art Association of Montreal, and had always been a member of its Council; he now had the leisure to mature and improve his knowledge. Chemical science had been making immense strides; in fact, a new science of organic chemistry had arisen, and he studied anew in the schools and in the great refineries of the Continent, and mastered the new processes in applied chemistry which had been recently introduced. In such ways as these he extracted from his enforced leisure not only enjoyment but future advantage.

The Government having once more changed, in 1879 the National Policy was inaugurated, and the partners came out from England and resumed their places in the active life of Montreal. The refinery was reopened, the plant renewed up to the latest point of technical improvement, and the business was reorganized as a joint-stock company. The works were enlarged, and, as the business developed, the plant and the methods still kept pace with every improvement discovered. Before long Mr. Peter Redpath withdrew and Mr. Drummond became president, dividing his time between the city office and the sugar-house. Mr. Frank Redpath began to assist in the manufacturing department, and later on two of Mr. Drummond's sons began to take places at the works. All three young men had been thoroughly educated, and had undergone, in addition, a special technical training. As for Mr. Frank Redpath, his native aptitude for practical mechanics amounted almost to genius. Then Mr. Peter Redpath finally took up his residence in England, and Mr. Drummond was elected director of the Bank of Montreal in his place. He is now vice-president, and perhaps the most active member of the most capable and powerful financial Board in Canada.

During three years—1886 to 1888—he served as President of the Montreal Board of Trade, and that period is notable for the assumption by the Dominion Government of the debt, incurred by the Harbor Commission, for deepening the ship channel between Montreal and Quebec. The interest upon this had long been weighing down the commerce of Montreal, and, as it was a charge upon everything passing through the port, it had a tendency to divert the business of Canada into United States channels. His efforts powerfully contributed to this relief, long sought for without result. Mr. Drummond, outside of Montreal interests, is still vice-president and chief stock-holder in the Cumberland Railway and Coal Company. In former years he was president, and this great property was largely developed by him. The collieries are at Springhill, in Cumberland county, and the railway extends from Parsboro' on the Bay of Fundy to Pugwash on the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He is also interested in many other mining and industrial enterprises.

Anyone so bound up in the industrial progress of Canada could not fail to have decided political opinions, and Mr. Drummond is a Conservative and a supporter of the National Policy. Being nothing if not thorough, he is very energetic at such critical periods as elections; and, as chairman of committees, has fought many political battles, and has thus become a mark for much hard hitting, which he bears with appropriate equanimity, for these assaults are not personal, but are directed against the political theory of which he is the chief exponent in Montreal. He did not again seek election to the House of Commons, but in 1888 he was called to the Senate, and there he usually takes an active part in debates upon important questions of trade or finance. As a debator he carries much weight, for his insight is quick and his experience is wide. He speaks with readiness, and expresses himself with clearness and precision, but without any superfluity of words. He will never speak upon a subject he knows nothing about, and when he has said what he has to say he is apt to sit down. He does not possess the—sometimes useful—gift of talking against time, nor can he, as the Americans say, "orate;" for a keen sense of humor prevents him from being eloquent upon any subject to which he is indifferent, or of which he may happen to be ignorant; and he does not possess the fatal gift of omniscience, which is a snare to many legislators.

From what has preceded, the fact will no doubt appear that Senator Drummond is an unusually well-informed man. He is thoroughly well-read in English literature, and, by current reading, keeps himself in touch with the movement of thought in letters and science. He is fond of music, but especially fond of painting, and this last is his favorite study. His collection of paintings is remarkable, not for its size, but from the excellence of every single picture. He has the best specimens of Troyon and Daubigny, and it is more

than doubtful whether there is a better Corot, in America. The "Raising of Jairus' Daughter," by Gabriel Max, has been often engraved, and when loaned for exhibition has attracted crowds. Of Benjamin Constant he has two fine examples. One of them, "Herodias," has been several times engraved. All of his pictures are of this order, and with these and many similar objects in the kindred arts, his home in Montreal is overflowing.

No account of Senator Drummond would be adequate without allusion to his love for the rod and the gun. He is a keen sportsman and an excellent shot, and is in his element on the salmon rivers of Labrador, among the reedy islands where wild fowl abound in their season, or among the larger game of the woods. In the winter he enjoys the curling rink, and in the open season the golf links. He was among the first to inaugurate a golf club at Montreal, and still remains its most enthusiastic devotee.

It would be manifestly travelling beyond the limits of a sketch of this nature to do more than to allude to the gentle lady who shared his early life and was the mother of three surviving sons, who are now commencing careers of promise; nor is it necessary to say anything, in Montreal, of her—the mother of his youngest son—who now presides with grace and dignity over the happy and beautiful home in Sherbrooke street. Her praise is all mouths. Her interest in social and charitable work is widely known, and especially her interest in St. Margaret's Home—an hospital for incurables—completely built and furnished by her husband, and placed under the care of the Anglican Sisters of St. Margaret.

Senator Drummond is, in physique, of the East Scottish type, which is rather North English, or Norse, than Celtic; he is of middle height, erect and spare, active in habit, moving with a quick step either on business or on the golfing links. In business he is exact and punctual, for he has many important matters to attend to, and he requires exactness, diligence, and punctuality in others. Any persons who are tedious and wasteful may him impatient, and he is fond, in business matters, of having his orders carried out. In working with others his attention is always fixed on success in the work undertaken, and, so long as that be attained, he is careless whether he or another has the credit of it. He is not easily turned aside from his purpose, and is rather stimulated than deterred by opposition. In conversation he is more of a listener than a speaker. In society his manner is courteous, quiet and retiring, indicating a constitutional shyness common among well-bred people in England, and which is sometimes taken for reserve. He is a kind host, a widely-cultured man of affairs, a public-spirited and useful citizen, and a man whom any city or country may well be proud.

THE CANADA SUGAR REFINERY.

The history of the Canada Sugar Refinery has an interest peculiarly its own. At the time of the founding of this great enterprise, the commercial interests of Montreal had suffered temporary eclipse. The years immediately preceding had been a time of disaster and loss. The established system of things had been shattered, and business men were disheartened and fearful of venturing afresh. But an era of better things was at hand, and foremost among the new leaders were the men who formed the notable firm which is the subject of this sketch. The rise of the sugar refining industry helped to inaugurate in the Canadian metropolis that system of commercial dealing which, in its progress and development, has carried the city on to its present proud position, and its splendid prosperity. But not only because its commencement was thus coincident with the birth of the city's present flourishing trade, but because its introduction was an entirely new feature in the industrial life of Montreal, made at once an astonishing change for the better, is an account of the rise and upward course of this enterprise, fraught with unusual interest. It is difficult, indeed, to-day, to realize how great was the undertaking of introducing into Canada so important a manufacture as this.

The founder of the house was John Redpath. He was already a man of means, a well-known contractor. He ventured his fortune in the erection of the first sugar refinery. The firm was at first known as "John Redpath & Son," and retained that name and style, notwithstanding that very soon after its starting, Mr. Drummond became a partner. The son of the senior partner, who figured in the firm from its very beginning,

was Mr. Peter Redpath, an able colleague of his distinguished father, and later a public benefactor and greatly honored citizen.

Upon Mr. Drummond devolved the duty of managing the refinery, a task demanding executive ability of a high order, as may be readily believed when we consider the host of operatives who there found employment. To understand, direct, and bring to a successful issue the complicated technical processes of the manufacture, fell also within his province, and the wonderful success of the whole testifies to Mr. Drummond's exceptional capacity.

Mr. Peter Redpath assumed the financial and mercantile responsibility. Perhaps no business was ever more fortunate in its managers, and from the first its success was apparent and assured.

It is an authentic fact that there was never any trouble at the Redpath Refinery. All employees were treated with unaltered consideration, fairness, and sympathy. The business certainly experienced occasional losses, the business being peculiarly liable to suffer with the depressions and vicissitudes which must inevitably visit from time to time the trade of every land. But a business which is guided by men of so marked talent and acknowledged honor, and served by employees of unwavering devotion and loyalty, do not suffer defeat, and the Canada Sugar Refinery has ever been in the fore-front of Canadian industries.

A very interesting period in the history of this house commenced in the year 1873, when under a Liberal Government, certain changes in the tariff were made, by which the margin of profit in the refining of sugar were so narrowed that the business could only be carried on at a loss. With characteristic business acumen the firm decided rather to lose temporarily by closing their business, than to persevere to the almost certain loss of their capital. At once the whole vast enterprise came to a standstill. The importation of raw sugar was stopped, whilst the raw material on hand was at once manufactured and sold off. The factory was closed, the movable plant disposed of, and the army of operatives discharged.

But this condition of things was not to continue. The year 1879 saw the inauguration of the National Policy. At once the Sugar Refinery was re-opened, and it is worthy of note that the occasion was seized to introduce the latest technical improvements. The business was re-organized as a joint-stock company. Shortly afterwards the works were enlarged, and they were subsequently and from time to time added to, as the business in its rapid development demanded.

A little later Mr. Peter Redpath withdrew from the firm, Mr. Drummond then becoming President, the other members of the Redpath and Drummond family coming into the house.

The premises occupied by this now historic firm have always been on a scale proportionate to the position it has ever held in the popular esteem, and the equipment of their workshops has never failed to be up with the times, proving alike the liberality and sound judgment of the men who controlled the vast workings of this important business. The new building, which has just been completed, is five stories high. It is entirely fire-proof, and is magnificently fitted up with the latest and most improved machinery and fittings in the world. The comfort and well-being of the workmen has received fullest consideration. There are baths in various parts of the building for their use.

The Refinery employs seven hundred hands. The machinery is vast, and it is impossible, in a short article like the present, to do anything like justice to it. In attempting description the mind becomes bewildered and the pen falters. The following few facts may, however, to readers familiar with the appearance and operations of great manufacturing establishments, suggest somewhat of the magnitude of the work carried on by the Canada Sugar Refinery: There are in active operation about sixty pumps and steam engines. There are thirty-six centrifugal machines in which the syrup is separated from the sugar, which, passing to the floor below, reaches a conveyor, from which it is conducted to the top floor, where it enters a dryer, passing thence through a sieve to a hopper, which finally conducts the sweet material to the barrel waiting for it. The barrels, when filled and headed, are at once carried off by means of a wire rope to the numerous stores connected with this huge concern. The boiling of the sugar is a most interesting process, twenty-two large steam-boilers being employed to furnish the necessary steam, and the sugar boiled by a vacuum process which works with one hundred degrees of heat less than the old process. Some grades of sugar are made in presses or moulds into long square sticks, and cut, in bunches, to the required size.

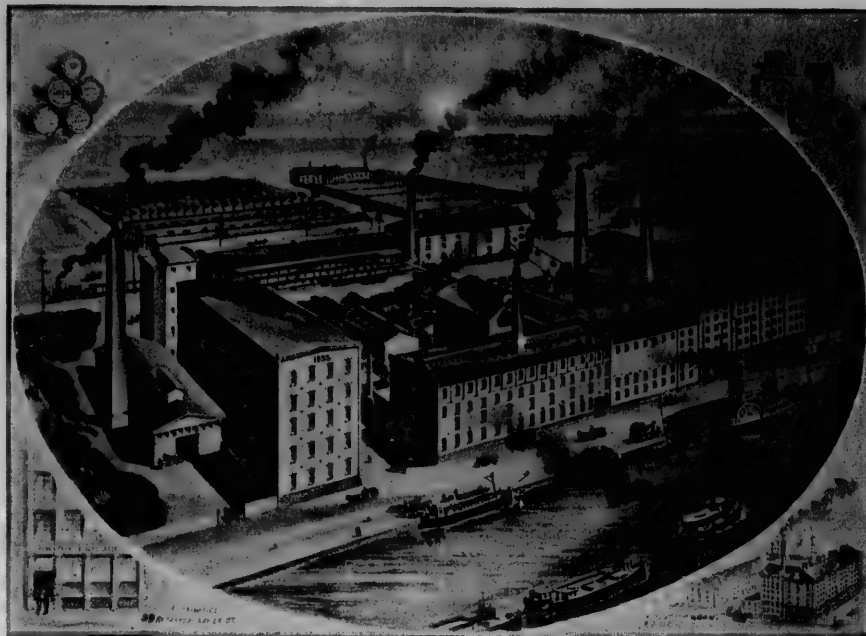
The capacity of the Refinery is 2000 barrels per day.

That the sugar manufactured by the Canada Sugar Refinery equals any upon the best markets of the world is universally conceded. That it is the very best made is not, perhaps, an exaggerated statement.

The Company has a fire brigade of its own, composed of trained firemen, who are furnished with all the apparatus necessary.

The erection of the new building was commenced in 1893. The old building was erected in 1854.

There can be no doubt that the facilities afforded by the city of Montreal for the development of trade are conspicuous and unique. Her situation upon the mighty St. Lawrence, her position as the centre of far-reaching lines of transportation, conspire to make for the chief Canadian city an unequaled prominence among the world's great commercial centres. But whilst ascribing, in all fairness, to these undisputed and most advantageous circumstances, a certain amount of the success which has attended so much of Montreal's enterprise, we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that, in order to profit by these, talent and energy of the highest order were necessary. The insight to foresee, at an early stage of its history, the city's great future, the nerve and resolution to risk fortunes, to venture their all, in the founding of industries which they destined to grow with the then unpretending settlement, these were the characteristics of the pioneers of trade in Mont-



WORKS OF THE CANADA SUGAR REFINERY CO.

real. Sterling enterprise, probity, good management, and many other meritorious qualifications were the means by which the city's advantages were turned to triumphant account.

No brighter instance of business ability, spent in the building up of a great industry, is afforded in all the history of Montreal than that given in this sketch.

This firm stands to-day, in every feature of enterprise and excellence, as a representative establishment of the highest order, and conduct what is certainly one of the finest concerns in the country. And this they owe, as we have seen, not merely to good fortune, but to earnest effort, well applied, to indomitable pluck, and vigilant attention to the ever-changing demands and fancies of trade. Always abreast of the times, ever ready to adopt each improvement as it became known, they have increased with the years, and enjoy to-day a respectful consideration, which is the just meed of desert.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

The Department of Agriculture was organised by Act of Parliament dated 22nd May, 1868, and the subjects under its control was defined in that Act as follows:—Agriculture; Immigration and Emigration; Public Health and Quarantine; The Marine and Emigrant Hospital at Quebec; Arts and Manufactures; The Census, Statistics, and Registration of Statistics; Patents of Invention; Copyright; Industrial Designs and Trade Marks.

Since the passing of that Act there have been added to this Department, the care of Public Archives; Experimental Farms; the latter being really a subdivision of Agriculture, and dealt with under that heading.

AGRICULTURE.

The function of agriculture was not fully in operation till 1887, when the Experimental Farm Act was passed, but it had previously exercised jurisdiction in matters of importance relating to agriculture, such as cattle quarantine, epizootics, &c.

It has now a Central Experimental Farm at Ottawa, with branch Farms in the Maritime Provinces, Manitoba, North West Territories and British Columbia, in all five branch farms. At all these Farms experiments of the greatest interest to farmers are constantly carried on, and the results published in the form of bulletins and reports which are distributed largely among farmers. There is a very great demand for these reports and bulletins. At the beginning of the present year, the Central Farm had 45,000 addresses of farmers to whom the bulletins and reports are furnished, in all parts of the Dominion, and these numbers are constantly augmenting. This is in addition to the large distribution made by the House of Commons.

Specimens of seeds and grains have been largely distributed among farmers by the Farms for some years past. The grains are distributed in bags containing 31 lbs. each, the sowing of which enables a farmer to get sufficient seed for his own purposes, of an improved character in one year. It has thus happened in respect to oats that the crop of a whole county has been improved, and the country made correspondingly richer.

The interest of the farmers in these matters is shown by the vastly increasing correspondence of the farm.

Experiments have been carried on in hybridizing different varieties of wheat and in grain seed from the most promising selections. Much practical benefit has been conferred in the North West, especially in this particular; and important experiments are still going on.

Perhaps the most striking results in the form of object lessons of the usefulness of the Farms are shown in the results of the Dairy Branch. Take for instance the article of cheese. The exports in 1887, when the farmers commenced, was a little over \$7,000,000. At the present time it is now over \$16,000,000. The value exported has, therefore, more than doubled. It is not only greater in proportion than the exportation from the United States, but is absolutely greater.

Take the little Island of Prince Edward Island. The practical dairy schools were commenced in 1892, on a very small scale. They have since spread all over the Island; the value of the export being now about \$80,000.

In the Province of Ontario, the progress which is being made in winter butter making is very rapid, and the same fact holds as respects Quebec and the Maritime Provinces. In a single year, from 300 to 400 meetings are addressed by the Dairy Commissioner and his assistants, the practical information given being very eagerly received by the farmers.

The improvements which have already taken place in the farming operations and specially in dairy industry have already more than repaid all the expenditure which has been made, with, as already stated, a prospect of phenomenal success which has attended Canadian cheese will also be experienced in Canadian butter.

The cattle quarantines have been in existence for about 25 years, and during the whole of that time, not a single case of contagious disease has been permitted to enter the country. This is a record which, without furnishing credit for the making of history, is to the highest degree satisfactory to the country. The embargo is maintained in England against Canadian cattle on the pretext that Pleuro-pneumonia has been found. It is

impossible that Pleuro-pneumonia can be found among Canadian cattle exported, the fact of the existence of the disease at the same time remaining unknown in Canada. The most diligent search instituted in Canada in every part of the Dominion, at the instance of the Government, has failed to find a single case. It is undoubted that the disease of ordinary Pneumonia caused by hardship of transport found in the case of cattle travelling thousands of miles which it is quite natural to expect to find, has been mistaken for Pleuro-pneumonia.

The quarantine stations for the detention of cattle are situated at Point Levis, P.Q., St. John, N.B., Halifax, N.S., Point Edward, (Sarnia,) Ont., Dufferin, Manitoba, and permanent reservations for all cattle entering the North-West Territories and British Columbia are established by Order-in-Council.

IMMIGRATION.

The subject of Immigration was by Order-in-Council, 14th March, 1892, transferred to the Department of the Interior, for the reason mainly of associating it with the settlement of Dominion Lands, and for economy of administration, one set of officers being considered sufficient for the two services.

Marine and Immigrant Hospital at Quebec—The administration of this Institution was by Order-in-Council of March 10, 1873, transferred from the Department of Agriculture to that of Marine and Fisheries.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

The Act relating to Quarantine passed in 1871-2, repealed the provisions of the Act 31 Vic. c. 63, under which the Department of Agriculture was charged with the subject of Public Health, representations being made by the Government that all Public Health matters, except in cases of an epidemic, should be relegated to the Provincial authorities.

QUARANTINE.

The Quarantine system of Canada is considered with its plant and equipment to be very efficient. The following is a brief sketch of the various quarantine stations in the Dominion:—

Grosse Isle, Quebec.—The quarantine station at Grosse Isle, the most important on the Atlantic coast of Canada, consists of an island in the St. Lawrence about thirty-one miles below Quebec. It was selected for quarantine purposes at the time of the first advent of cholera to this continent, in 1832. It lies in the stream about four miles and a half from the south shore of the river, about six miles from the north shore, and two miles or more from the "fairway" or channel along which incoming and outgoing vessels pass. No one is allowed to reside on the island except the employees and their families. A written permit from the officer in charge is required before anyone can either land on the island, depart from it, or, when infectious disease is present, pass from one of its divisions to another.

Its position and capabilities of isolation are therefore exceptionally good.

The island is a well wooded one, between two and three miles long, and covers some 700 acres. It is divided into sick, central, and healthy divisions.

In the sick division, at the eastern extremity of the island, are the hospitals, and the quarters of the hospital staff.

There is a two story brick hospital with one hundred beds, including some in private wards, for cabin passengers, ships' officers, &c., and a detached one story wooden shed with four separate wards, and about seventy beds, for cholera and small-pox patients. There are also ample facilities provided for the washing, disinfection, and fumigation of bedding, clothing, &c.

In the central division, are the residences of the inspecting officers and of the crew of the inspecting steamer. In this division also, the churches (Protestant and Roman Catholic), and the chaplains' residences are placed.

In the healthy division, at the western extremity of the island, are the houses of detention for suspected steerage passengers from infected vessels. These detention houses are eight in number, grouped in twos and threes, and furnish in all, accommodation for about two thousand persons. In this division also is a wash-house, with six furnaces and boilers; a bacteriological laboratory; a bath and closet-house with twelve baths and sixteen water-closets for men, and six baths and eight closets for women; a bakery, a forge, an oven for hot air disinfection; a fumigating room, police barracks, &c. There is also a steam disinfecting house with three iron chambers, 25 feet by 8 feet 6 inches, with boiler, &c., for the disinfection and sterilization of clothing

and luggage, by steam. This division is separated by more than a mile of generally wooded land from the sick division and the hospitals.

There is telephonic communication between the different divisions of the station, and telegraphic communication with the main land. Incoming vessels requiring inspection are met in the offing, and inspected immediately upon their arrival, whether by day or night. The position of the station is marked at night to vessels arriving, and the working of the night service is facilitated, by the presence of an illuminated gas buoy about two miles out from, and opposite to the station.

For the inspection service two steamers are required, one being the regular inspecting steamer, on duty with steam up day and night, from early April to late November, always in readiness to meet incoming vessels in the offing. She is provided with an hospital cabin, with beds, &c., for the landing of the sick and with disinfecting appliances sufficient to disinfect a ships' hospital cabin. When infectious disease is found to have occurred on any incoming vessel, and to have been satisfactorily isolated, the sick, with their attendance, and all the contents of the ships' hospital, are at once transferred to the quarantine steamer. The emptied hospital of the ship is then drenched with mercuric chloride solution, and treated with superheated steam. The vessel, meanwhile, proceeds up the river with the quarantine steamer alongside, so that even in these cases the delay is reduced to a minimum.

A second steamer is required to use as a supply boat and mail boat; as a means of taking convalescents up to Quebec when discharged from quarantine; to land healthy but suspected passengers for quarantine observation at the detention division, and to act as a reserve inspecting steamer whenever required.

An effective modern quarantine services requires :—

- 1st. Means of disinfecting vessels.
- 2nd. Means of disinfecting clothing, luggage and ships' dunnage.
- 3rd. Facilities for quickly and safely disembarking and re-embarking passengers, luggage and cargo.
- 4th. Prompt furnishing of information of breaking out of infectious disease in foreign ports.

The means of disinfection are confined to the three following :—

1. The Steam Disinfecter.
2. The Dioxide Sulphuric Blast.
3. The Bichloride Mercuric Drench.

The first named is of chief importance for cholera. It is the only sure disinfecter of luggage, clothing bedding, &c. The positiveness of its destruction of bacilli, fomites, microbes, &c., was discovered and demonstrated by Dr. Koch over twenty years ago, but this disinfecting agency was not applied to quarantine until 1885, by Dr. Holt, at New Orleans.

Steam disinfection is also applied to the compartments of vessels which are close enough to admit of the retention of steam and raising the temperature sufficiently high.

The Dioxide Blast, while it cannot fully be relied on for disinfecting luggage and clothing is yet the most effective known for injecting with great force sulphur fumes into the holds and compartments of ships. It performs this service with great rapidity. Its use prevents undue detention of vessels.

The Bichloride Drench is used for spraying compartments of ships, for ships dunnage or cargo after the Dioxide Blast has been used. It is very greed in searching out and destroying all disease germs.

Halifax, N.S.—Halifax is now being fitted with quarantine disinfecting appliances and hospital and detention buildings to make it a quarantine station of the first-class. It is situated on Lawlor's Island, near the entrance to the harbour, and five miles distant from the city. It is about one mile in length, a quarter of a mile wide, and covers nearly two hundred acres. It is divided into three sections. On it are two hospitals, steward's residence, outbuildings, &c. From its position behind McNab's Island, it is scarcely visible when entering the harbour.

A system of quarantine and a health officer for the Port of Halifax existed for a period of some forty years prior to confederation. In 1866 a number of cholera patients were landed on McNab's Island, where several hundred died, the health officer attending them falling also a victim to the disease. No regular quarantine station then existed, but the Provincial Government under the stress of this visitation at once arranged for the purchase of Lawlor's Island, which, however, was not completed until confederation had taken place, and Lawlor's Island, Halifax, was established as a quarantine station by Order-in-Council, 25th of May, 1868.

Owing to Halifax being the winter port of the Dominion this is a very important station. The buildings on it, though old, have been repaired, and new detention buildings are being erected. The old wharf or landing place, is insufficient for present service, and the erection of a new wharf on or near which to place sulphur blast and steam disinfecter, is about to be erected.

St. John, N.B.—This Station is situated on Patridge Island, some three miles below the City of St. John. The buildings on this have been placed in repair, and a steam disinfecter, especially procured from England, has been placed in position, a dioxide sulphur blast and appliances for the mercuric drench are also being supplied, rendering this quarantine efficient for service.

Patridge Island was selected for a quarantine station, by the Provincial Government in 1899, when it was granted under charter to the city and corporation of St. John, with certain provisions to be carried out by the city, but it was not until 1830 that it was made use of. A "pesthouse" on the Carleton side of St. John river had, until that date been the point to which infectious diseases had been transferred. In 1883-4 a marine hospital was built and efforts made to alleviate the condition of the sick, left from time to time, on the island. In 1874, when ship fever developed itself, in great malignity, Patridge Island was divided into a healthy and an infected district. Records show that 3,000 persons were landed there during that year, out of which number 1,500 died from fever. In 1868, after Confederation, an Order-in-Council was passed establishing it as a quarantine station under Dominion regulations.

Sydney, N.S.—This station occupies about two acres of land at Point Edward, situated about midway between North Sydney and Sydney proper. It is accessible at all times by water, unless during a few days in the spring when floating ice accumulates off the quarantine wharf. The buildings at this station have been repaired and are in fair condition.

Sydney was established as a quarantine station, by Order-in-Council, October 30th, 1880.

Charlottetown, P.E.I.—This station is distant about two miles from Charlottetown, and is located at the entrance of the harbour. The property covers nine acres in extent and the building thereon is used both as an hospital and as a caretaker's dwelling.

Charlottetown was established as a quarantine station by Order-in-Council, July, 1875.

Pictou, N.S.—This station is situated about five miles below the town of Pictou, and covers thirty-five acres of land. There is an hospital and steward's house, built of wood, and a small pesthouse built of stone.

Pictou was established as a quarantine station, by Order-in-Council, 18th October, 1873.

Chatham, Miramichi, N.B.—This station is on Middle Island, in Miramichi River, distant from the town of Chatham between one and two miles. The buildings consists of two hospitals and a caretaker's residence, and are built of wood, on stone foundations, and are in good condition.

Chatham was established as a quarantine station, by Order-in-Council, 8th October, 1886.

Port Hawkesbury, N.B.—At this station inspection of vessels, when needed, is carried on by the inspecting physician appointed by Government for that purpose.

Port Hawkesbury was established as a quarantine station, by Order-in-Council, 3rd August, 1886.

British Columbia.—Williams' Head is joined to Albert Head, for a general quarantine station for British Columbia, and is fitted up with the disinfecting appliances of the first-class; together with deep water wharf and the necessary buildings. A dioxide blast has been placed on the wharf, the attendant steamer "Earl" has been thoroughly overhauled and placed in efficient condition, and this station holds towards the Pacific the same position as Grosse Isle holds to the Atlantic.

ARTS AND MANUFACTURES.

Under this head may be classed the supervision of Canada's participation in the various Industrial Exhibitions of all nations, held on both continents, notably amongst which are these at Paris, Philadelphia, London, Vienna, Antwerp, Chicago and in Australia.

CENSUS AND STATISTICS.

Statistics.—The Statistical Branch of the Department of Agriculture is based upon the Union Act which specifically assigns Census and Statistics to the exclusive authority of the Parliament of Canada.

In accordance with this assignment of duties the Parliament of Canada passed chap. 21, Acts of 42 Victoria.

In the Revised Statutes of Canada, 1886, this Act forms chapters 58 and 59. Chap. 60 is the authority for the collection of criminal statistics.

By chap. 15, Acts of 1890, the collection and publication of labour statistics are defined to the part of the duties of the Minister of Agriculture, acting under the general authority conferred upon him by chap. 59, R.S.C.

As misapprehension seems to exist leading to indiscriminate and unofficial publications of statistics, sections of the Act, chap. 59, R.S.C. are here given:—

The first section provides for the collecting, abstracting, tabulating and publishing vital, agricultural, commercial, criminal and other statistics by the Department of Agriculture.

The fourth section gives the Minister of Agriculture power to arrange with any Lieutenant-Governor in Council or with any provincial organization, for the collecting and transmission of information collected under provincial systems.

The fifth section says:—

"The Minister of Agriculture may in collecting statistics, in the manner provided by this Act, call upon any and all public officers to furnish copies of papers and documents and such information as lie respectively in the power of such officers to furnish, with or without compensation for so doing, as is regulated from time to time by the governor in Council.

The sixth section provides for the publication of an abstract and record of the various departments or other public reports and documents.

The seventh section gives power to the Governor in Council to authorize the Minister of Agriculture to cause special statistical investigations as regards subjects, localities or otherwise, to be made.

The eighth section empowers the Minister of Agriculture to cause all statistical information to be examined, and any omissions, defects or inaccuracies discernible therein, to be supplemented and corrected as far as practicable.

The ninth section is as follows:—

"Every one who wilfully gives false information or practises any deception in furnishing information provided for by this Act shall, on summary conviction before two justices of the peace, be liable to a penalty not exceeding one hundred dollars."

The evident aim and intention of these several Acts is the establishment of a Bureau of Statistics, which shall form part of the Department of Agriculture, and in which shall be consolidated the general statistics of the country, the officers in charge of which shall have every facility necessary to enable them to obtain the needed statistics from the several departments of the Federal Government, of the Provincial Governments, or by special statistical investigations.

The public appear to appreciate the efforts of this division of the Department; the aim is to give all inquirers the best information obtainable. The statistician's office has become a general inquiry office for all parts of the world.

CRIMINAL STATISTICS.

Chap. 60 of the Revised Statutes of Canada gives the special authority under which the Criminal Statistics are collected. The system of compiling is such as to render the returns thoroughly accurate.

The "Year Book" (Statistical Abstract).—The Year Book is prepared, printed and distributed by the Department of Agriculture. It has been entirely remodelled and a large quantity of new material introduced. The demand for it is very great. The utmost care has been exercised in distributing it; notwithstanding, the supply has not been equal to the demand, requests from France, Germany, the United States, Japan and other foreign countries as well as from all parts of the British Empire having been received.

The Statistical Year Book of Canada is published under authority of Chap. 59, Sec. 6, Revised Statutes of Canada.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

A large amount of statistical work is done under authority of section 7, Chap. 59, Revised Statutes.

PATENTS AND INVENTIONS.

The work of the Patent Branch of this Department is annually increasing, the fees for 1895 amounting to \$79,146.

The attention of applicants for patents should be directed to the necessity for the greatest care in the preparation of their applications, a work which is generally performed by patent solicitors, not only in Canada, but in other countries where patent laws are in active operation.

A Patent Record is published monthly, illustrated. There is also a library of Patent Literature adjoining the model room, to which inventors and the public have free access.

COPYRIGHTS, TRADE MARKS, ETC.

The Registration of Copyright, Trade Marks and Industrial Designs belongs to this Department, and is annually increasing in importance. Full particulars for obtaining Certificates of Registration, together with details for application can be procured on application to the office in question.

ARCHIVES BRANCH.

The branch for the collection of the public record, or Archives, was established in 1872, and placed under the direction of the Minister of Agriculture by a joint resolution of the Senat and House of Commons. In addition to a large amount of original documents carefully collected and arranged since the institution of the branch, copies are in course of transcription in the State paper offices of London and Paris, relating to the history of all the provinces of the Dominion. These have been found of great value to literary men and historians, and gratitude is expressed both publicly and privately to the Dominion Government for the facilities thus afforded and for the information conveyed in the annual reports of the work done in the branch.



HON. WILFRID LAURIER.

THE pages of Canadian history present to our notice few names of greater interest than that which stands at the head of this page. He has shown himself a statesman of no common order, and in a land peopled by two races of different religious prejudices, his value cannot be over-estimated. He is a Liberal of the best type, and the immense benefit is easily recognized of having in a prominent place a man so well calculated to effect a union of thought, sentiment and interest between these different elements, and engage them in thought and effort for the good of their common country.

Mr. Laurier was born at St. Lin, L'Assomption, Quebec province, November 20, 1841. He was educated first at L'Assomption College and subsequently at McGill University, where he took his degree of B.C.L. in 1864. A year later he was called to the Bar of Quebec, having pursued his studies in the office of Mr.—now the Honourable—T. A. R. Laflamme.

Owing to a temporary decline of health, he left Montreal after two year's practice, and became the editor of *Le Défricheur*, a newspaper published at Arthabaska. This paper did not, however, continue long in existence, and on its suspension Mr. Laurier returned to his professional pursuits, in which he soon obtained a high position, his personal as his intellectual attainments.

In 1871, he was the representation of Drummond and Arthabaska in the Local Assembly, and carried the seat by a large majority. His talents as a debater, and his statesmanship prominent in the House, Mackenzie appealed to the Quebecers, and he relinquished his seat at Quebec to enter upon a more enlarged sphere of work at Ottawa. He was soon after recognized as one of the foremost of the representatives supporting the government, and it became evident that he must, at no distant day, be called upon of office. Attention had been attracted by him at a lecture delivered by him at "Political Liberalism," in defence of the Quebec Liberalism.

It was not at all surprising that on a vacancy occurring in the Quebec Ministry, Mr. Laurier should be offered the vacant position, which was universally hailed as a just tribute to his worth and ability. In September, 1877, he was sworn of the Privy Council, and became Minister of Inland Revenue.

Shortly afterwards he was defeated in the election, his old constituents sending in his place Mr. Bourbeau, the Conservative candidate. The defeat only served to show how highly the importance of Mr. Laurier's position in the country was estimated. Several constituencies were at once placed at his disposal, the Hon. Mr. Thibaudeau, member for Quebec East, finally resigning in order to create a vacancy. After a brief contest, Mr. Laurier carried the division by a majority of 315 votes. General rejoicing ensued, and his journey to Ottawa was a triumphal progress, to be followed by a brilliant ovation on his arrival there. He retained the portfolio of Minister of Inland Revenue until the resignation of the Government in 1878.

He has continued to represent Quebec East in the Dominion Parliament ever since his memorable election in 1877. He is the official leader of the Opposition, and is a power not only in his own party. He speaks both the English and French languages fluently, has a large amount of French vivacity, and notwithstanding the keenness of his satire, is able to strike without wounding, and commands the good will of his warmest political foes.

He has great tact and fine administrative talent, and does not readily make an enemy even in the ranks of his political opponents. In action, in energy, in knowledge of the world, in Parliamentary strategy, and in ability of contest, he is unsurpassed by any contemporary.



Liberal candidate for the district of Arthabaska in 1871, he carried the seat by a large majority, and his statesmanship prominent in the House, Mackenzie appealed to the Quebecers, and he relinquished his seat at Quebec to enter upon a more enlarged sphere of work at Ottawa. He was soon after recognized as one of the foremost of the representatives supporting the government, and it became evident that he must, at no distant day, be called upon of office. Attention had been attracted by him at a lecture delivered by him at "Political Liberalism," in defence of the Quebec Liberalism.

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HON. JOHN COSTIGAN.

It scarcely needs saying that in the list of names, famous and honourable, of men distinguished in the Canadian political arena there stand forth conspicuously those of Irishmen who, in making Canada their adopted land, made its interests their own, and spent their lives in public service, lending heartily, with truest patriotism, the aid of their brilliant talents to the cause of a country's weal.

In this illustrious band, no name shines with a fairer lustre than that of our Minister of Marine and Fisheries, the Honourable John Costigan, who during the past thirty-four years has occupied a foremost position, achieving for himself a place in the annals of his time which attests the purity of his fame, and the appreciative esteem of the public which he serves.

Mr. Costigan was born at St. Nicholas, in the Province of Quebec, February 1, 1835. He was educated at St. Ann's College, many of whose *alumni* have attained to eminence in their respective careers. His success as a student was most marked, and he is remembered for his bright intelligence, his studious habits, and the strength that noble ambition which later spurred him on to a position in which his rare endowments might benefit his fellows. Leaving student days behind him, embarked at an early age upon the stormy sea of life.

He was soon afterwards for Victoria, and judge of mon Pleas, New Brunswick. found this field of usefulness natural energy prompted solicitations of friends and elected in that year to re-the New Brunswick Aswell - deserved popularity they continued to return him during a period of thirty-four Assembly for six years, and after the Union, for the

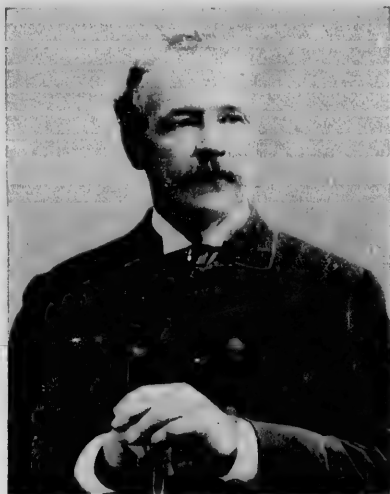
While Mr. Costigan House of Commons, and had become an accomplished a most stubborn and bitter wick School Act, assumed ssembly that ended in its of Dominion politics. Its end to end of the country, that threatened the well-

Mr. Costigan was fully men and co-religionists in

of the obnoxious measure. He attacked the Bill from his seat in the Federal Commons with the vehemence and eloquence born of righteous indignation and sense of a wrong inflicted. He returned to the charge again and again. In 1875 he moved a resolution praying for the passage of an Act amending the B. N. A. Act, by providing that the Roman Catholic inhabitants of New Brunswick shall have the same rights, privileges, etc., as to separate and dissential schools, etc., as are enjoyed and possessed by the Roman Catholic minority of Ontario, and the Protestant minority of Quebec, and was so far successful, that he paved the way for concessions which are at present fairly satisfactory. During the session of 1877, Mr. Costigan moved for an inquiry into the case of Prof. O'Donoghue, charged with having aided in the North-West Rebellion, evincing on this occasion that innate love of justice, and chivalrous impulse which have distinguished his dealings throughout his whole career.

In 1873, the Irish Home Rule movement had received a new impetus, and clubs were formed all over the United States and Canada. Mr. Costigan identified himself with the aspirations of his countrymen for political autonomy, throwing himself into the struggle with characteristic dash and determination. In the session of 1882, he moved and carried an address to Her Majesty, passed on the "Costigan Irish Resolutions," praying that she would grant Home Rule Government to Ireland, etc.

In private life, Mr. Costigan is highly esteemed by those who know him intimately. He was married, in 1855, to Harriet, daughter of Mr. J. R. Ryan, of Grand Falls, N.B. In politics he is a Conservative.



appointed registrar of Deeds the Inferior Court of Com- His ambition, however, too narrow, and his great him, in 1861, to yield to the enter public life. He was present Victoria, N.B., in ssembly; and so great is his with his constituents, that as their representative years. He sat in the Local in the House of Commons, balance of the time. was yet new to the Federal shortly after Confederation fact, the prolonged conflict, one, over the New Bruns- proportions in the Local As- transfer to the broader field echoes were repeated from resulting in an agitation being of the Dominion. in touch with his country- their demand for the repeal

THE HON. J. A. CHAPLEAU.

THE Hon. Joseph Adolphe Chapleau, Q.C., LL.D., Knight Commander of the Legion of Honor, Knight Commander of St. Gregory the Great, Lieutenant Governor of the Province of Quebec, was born at Ste. Thérèse de Blainville, November 9th, 1840. He showed, as a child, great intelligence, and was, by his parents, early destined for a professional life. He received his education, first at the College of Terrebonne, and afterwards at the College of St. Hyacinthe, winning at both of these seats of learning a high reputation for brilliancy and cleverness.

Having fixed upon the law for a profession, he entered the office of Messrs. Ouimet, Morin, and Marchand, to qualify himself for the Bar. He was called to the Bar of Lower Canada in 1861, and created Q.C. in 1873.

Entering into partnership with his former principals, he began practice at the Montreal Bar, where he was long one of the most distinguished figures. However, politics had already absorbed a large portion of the young lawyer's time and attention. From 1860 to 1861 he took a most active part in every electoral contest during that period. On the 1st of January, 1862, he became the joint proprietor and editor of *Le Colonisateur*, a tri-weekly newspaper which was the centre of action of the young Conservative element during the two years of its existence.

He entered upon his public career in 1867, being then elected by acclamation to represent the County of Terrebonne in the Provincial Legislature.

At the Advent of Confederation he was found ably fighting for the cause of a United Canada. As a proof of the statesmanship and far-sightedness of Canada's most gifted son, as in the session of 1868 he early strongly advocated the policy of protection to Canadian industries, and the building of railways as being the only means of securing to the Province of Quebec the status that its geographical and commercial situation in the Confederation entitled it to occupy. He was Solicitor-General from 1873 to 1874.

In 1876 he became Provincial Secretary, and left the Government at the *coup-d'état* of Lieutenant-Governor Letellier de St. Just. In the ensuing struggle he had a fore-eminence, and led them in Opposition, and upon the resignation of the latter he was called to form a new Government. Accepting the Premiership and Minister of Works, he himself became Premier. In 1882 he was

of Canada, as Secretary of State. In 1892 he was appointed Minister of Customs.

In December, 1892, the confidence and esteem of the country for Mr. Chapleau resulted in his appointment to the honorable and important position of Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec. In all the duties and difficulties connected with this high office, he has never failed to justify the discrimination which fixed upon him as the man best fitted to maintain the dignity and discharge ably and conscientiously the duties of the position. He was appointed Commander of the Legion of Honor in 1882 by President Grévy. The title of Doctor of Laws was conferred on him by Laval University. In 1884 he was appointed President of a Royal Commission on Chinese Immigration, and in that capacity visited California and British Columbia. His report on the subject led to the enactment of a law which permits but limits Chinese Immigration into Canada. Mr. Chapleau introduced into Canada the British system of the Stationery office for public departments and Parliament, as well as the American system of a National Printing Bureau.

In the field of letters he has been a very able contributor, but it is as an orator that he shines forth in his true natural brilliancy, and so far eclipsed all his contemporaries. He is truly a born orator, eloquent, fiery, fluent, with a clear musical silver-toned utterance, every syllable falls on the listener's ears distinct and perfect. He is truly a man of whom not only the Province of Quebec but the Dominion of Canada should be proud.

Mr. Chapleau married in 1874, Miss Mary Louisa King, daughter of Lieut.-Colonel King, of Sherbrooke, Que.



THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WORKS.

PREVIOUS to the year 1879, this interesting and important Department embraced canals, works on navigable rivers, harbors, light-houses, beacons and buoys, slides and booms, roads and bridges, public buildings and provincial vessels. But on the 15th of May, 1879, by the Act 42 Victoria, chap. 7, the division was authorized of the then existing Department of Public Works into two Departments, to be presided over and managed by two Ministers; one of the said Ministers to be designated the "Minister of Railways and Canals," and the other the "Minister of Public Works."

The Department is administered by the Hon. J. A. Ouimet, M.P., whose widely-recognized ability for executive administration marks him out as peculiarly fitted to fill high office in his country's service.

Mr. Ouimet was born at Ste. Rose, in the Province of Quebec, in May of 1843, and was educated at the Seminary of Ste. Thérèse de Blainville. He adopted the legal profession, and was appointed Queen's Counsel in 1880. During the troubles in the North-West, in 1885, he went on active service with the Militia, being Lieutenant-Colonel of the Sixty-fifth Battalion. He entered the political arena in 1873. His course was successful and brilliant from the first, and during the years from 1887 to 1891 he was Speaker of the House of Commons. In the latter year he received his present portfolio.

Of all our Public Buildings the most imposing as well as the most important are the Government Houses at Ottawa. They are exceedingly spacious and handsome, and their magnificent situation on a prominent rocky point, which juts out into the River Ottawa, at an elevation considerably higher than the city, brings into prominence their best features, and never fails to awaken the enthusiastic admiration of the visitor who beholds the Canadian seat of Government for the first time. The grounds about the Buildings are, indeed, for beauty of situation, unsurpassed in America. The "Lover's Walk," about half a mile in length, around the face of the cliff, shaded by trees of great beauty, is one of the most delightful retreats imaginable. The Parliament and Departmental Buildings, east and west, are marvels of architectural grace and perfection.

The style of architecture in these Buildings is a modified 12th century Gothic. The material principally employed in their construction is a hard, cream-colored sandstone. Ohio freestone is employed in the dressings, stairs, gables, and pinnacles, and a very pleasing effect is gained by the relieving arches of red Potsdam sandstone over the windows and doors. Most of the timber used was obtained in the Ottawa Valley. The roofs are of Vermont slate, of a dark color, variegated by lighter bands.

The buildings form three sides of a quadrangle, measuring, from North to South, six hundred feet, from East to West, seven hundred feet, and containing an area of over nine and a half acres. The Parliament Building occupies the North side of this square, upon which it has a frontage of four hundred and seventy-two feet. It faces towards the South, and its extreme depth at the centre is three hundred and seventy feet. The Departmental Buildings form the East and West sides of the square, and are of a rectangular shape. The Eastern Block has a frontage on the Square of three hundred and nineteen feet, while the Western Block shows on the Square a frontage of two hundred and twenty feet.

These magnificent piles of architecture cost between five and six millions of dollars.

The Senate Chamber and House of Commons in the central Building are both beautifully finished. Each measures 84 by 45 feet, and the House of Commons is arranged for the accommodation of two hundred members. The roof of glass above each, through which light is admitted, is supported by numerous marble columns of elegant design and high polish.

The Parliamentary Library, which forms a separate Building, is both beautiful and wonderfully unique. The principal room is circular, and ninety feet in diameter. The main wall is four feet thick, and its exterior face forms a polygon of sixteen sides, at each angle of which is a flying buttress, spanning the roof of the lean-to, and adjoining the main wall at a height calculated to resist the thrust of the vaulted roof. The whole is most effective. This Library contains a great number of books, which are arranged with regularity, and are catalogued and indexed in the most thorough and convenient manner. A statue of the Queen, standing in the centre of the circular apartment, forms an interesting and beautiful feature.



GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.—LANGEVIN BLOCK.

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In the corridors of the Parliament Buildings are large-sized portraits of many of the old members of the Canadian Legislatures, and to those who are acquainted with Canada's romantic and eventful history, these present great attractions.

The Patent Office also is most interesting. Here are kept models of all the Patents that have ever been granted. These are many and varied, and give an idea of the increasing requirements and resources of the country well calculated to astonish the chance visitor.

The East and West Buildings are occupied as offices by the officials of the Civil Service. In the West Block are situated the offices of the Department which forms the subject of this sketch.

The following are the principal officers of the Department of Public Works :—

Minister—Hon. J. Aldéric Ouimet.

Deputy Minister—A. Gobell.

Secretary—E. F. E. Roy.

Chief Architect—Thomas Fuller.

Chief Engineer—Louis Coste.

Chief Accountant—O. Dionne.

Chief Clerk Engineering Branch—R. Steckel.

Private Secretary to Minister—R. C. Desrochers.

D. H. Keeley, General Superintendent of Government Telegraph Lines.

On the south side of Wellington Street, and facing the Parliament Buildings, is another Block of Departmental Buildings. The erection of these was not contemplated at the time when the Governmental Buildings were first planned, but was rendered a necessity later on by the need of further accommodation for the work and storing of official documents. It is a massive block, and imparts an imposing appearance to that portion of Wellington Street.

Among other prominent Canadian buildings may be reckoned the Post Offices at Montreal, Toronto, Quebec, and Ottawa. The first-named is Italian Renaissance in style, and covers an area of 11,804 square feet. It was built at a cost of \$490,593.

Surveys and examinations are made by officers under instructions from this Department, the purpose of these being to obtain reliable and accurate information touching the desirability and practicability of undertaking the construction of such works as are from time to time urged upon the Government. To show how numerous are such surveys and how wide a territory they cover, we give the following list of ninety-eight different localities which were thus visited in a single year (the fiscal year ending June, 1894 :—

British Columbia.....	6
Manitoba.....	2
New Brunswick.....	8
North-West Territories.....	1
Nova Scotia.....	39
Ontario.....	14
Prince Edward Island.....	13
Quebec.....	15

The report of the Chief Engineer contains always a most interesting record of improvements accomplished among the wharves, piers, and breakwaters of the Dominion. A list of these for a year is astonishing, by reason of its extent and the varied nature of the work. On the River St. John, in New Brunswick, in 1894, a very important and interesting survey was made. This river, 450 miles long, takes its rise from sources in the Province of Quebec and State of Maine. Entering New Brunswick at the confluence of the St. Francis, a little below the Quebec border, it flows for 300 miles before it empties into the Bay of Fundy at St. John. Three natural features of the river are remarkable, viz. :—The Tidal Falls, Grand Falls, and the Annual Flood. The Chief Engineer's report stated that, for purposes of works, the river may be divided into three compartments :—

1. Tidal navigation for steamers and sailing vessels from St. John to Fredericton, 84 miles, requiring 11 feet at low water. Principal obstruction, the Oromocto shoals, giving about 9 feet of water.
2. Inland navigation for steamers from Fredericton to Woodstock, a distance of about 65 miles, requiring 3½ feet at low water. Obstacle to inland navigation in the shape of boulders in a few places, and extensive shoals of material, more or less coarse, varying from sandy gravel to stones.
3. The upper river, including, with the tributaries, all that part above Woodstock.



GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.—WESTERN DEPARTMENTAL BLOCK.

The report further showed that during the year there had been expended in the first of these divisions a sum of \$846.94. In the second, \$498.33 had covered the cost of the removal of boulders, gravel, etc., and in working other improvements. In the third division, the completion of a dam at Grand Falls, the removal of a huge, rocky obstacle, the scarping of channels through bars, and other works too numerous to mention, involved an outlay of \$2,085.

A slight idea only can be gained of the enormous extent of work done by this Department, through lending attention to such brief extracts from its reports as can be dealt with in this article. The mere headings of the numerous divisions of the work accomplished by its officers are bewildering in their numbers; a detailed account gives really an astonishing idea of the amount of labor that a well organized and efficient system can accomplish. During a single recent year one thousand and seventeen papers were referred by the Secretary of the Department to the office of the Chief Engineer for report or action. During the same year the letters received in the office of the Chief Engineer from resident enquirers and others amounted to seven thousand.

The Department of Public Works has charge of the Government Telegraph Lines, in itself a very extensive branch of the service. The following table gives the revenue and expenditure of the Telegraph Service during one year :—

Telegraph Service.	Expenditure.	Revenue.
	\$ cts.	\$ cts.
Lower St. Lawrence and Maritime Provinces :—		
Anticosti Island Lines.....	2614 45	389 53
Bay of Fundy	1113 96	672 10
Cape Ray	250 00	
Cape Sable	393 44	53 95
Cheticamp	943 56	462 46
Escuminac	503 93	136 21
Low Point Agency.....	50 00	
Magdalen Island Lines.....	4242 70	297 13
Meat Cove	2861 34	1036 42
North Shore St. Lawrence (East of Bersimis).....	4122 38	1102 83
" " (West of Bersimis).....	3291 38	1310 21
Quarantine Line.....	612 14	483 82
Subsidies, Stationery, Line and Office Material, Cable Repairs and Contingencies, chargeable to the Appropriation for Gulf Lines.....	2865 75	
Ontario :—Pelée Island Line.....	23,865 03	5944 66
North-West Telegraph Lines.....	750 37	138 79
	14,114 72	1573 20
British Columbia :—	38,730 12	7656 65
Comox Line.....	1994 21	961 27
Baskerville Line.....	2969 50	
Cape Beale Line.....	5028 26	
Total.....	48,722 09	8617 92

This Department has in its charge the National Art Gallery at Ottawa, containing many beautiful and valuable pictures, as well as a most interesting collection of coins, pottery, and antiquities, the latter chiefly from Cyprus.

It may not be amiss to explain that the Government only own and operate those lines which have been built by them in furtherance of the public service, between places where the traffic could not be expected to be sufficient to compensate private outlay, but when public interests require that there shall be communication, especially in connection with the signal and other stations established by the Marine Department along the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Maritime Provinces, and British Columbia, and also for the



GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.—EASTERN DEPARTMENTAL BLOCK.

better opening up of the North-West Territories. Since the establishment of the telegraph service in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and along the Atlantic Coast, the reduction in Marine Insurance Premiums has been 50 per cent.

The following table will be of interest to the reader :—

LAND AND CABLE TELEGRAPH LINES OWNED BY GOVERNMENT IN THE SEVERAL PROVINCES OF CANADA,
ON 30TH JUNE, 1893.

Government Telegraph Lines.	Distance in Miles.		Grand Total.
	Land.	Cable.	
Newfoundland (subsidized line)— Port aux Basques to Cape Ray	14		14
Nova Scotia— Meat Cove, C.B., to St. Paul's Island		30	
Across Ingonish Harbor, C.B.		$\frac{1}{2}$	
" St. Ann's " "		$\frac{1}{2}$	
Sydney to Meat Cove	1273	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Low Point to Mingan.	5		
Barrington to Cape Sable Island	16	$1\frac{1}{4}$	234 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mabou to Cheticamp	63		
New Brunswick— Bay of Fundy	34	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	96 $\frac{1}{4}$
Chatham to Escuminac	52		
Quebec— Magdalen Islands	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Anticosti Island	242	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	
North Shore of St. Lawrence	456 $\frac{3}{4}$	39 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,085
Chicoutimi	92		
Quarantine, Grosse Isle	46	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Ontario— Pelée Island	24	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	32 $\frac{3}{4}$
North-West Territories	834		834
British Columbia	412	$\frac{1}{2}$	412 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total	2,502	207	2,709

FREE TRADE.

BY RICHARD COBDEN, M.P.

An address delivered at Aylesbury, January 9th, 1853.

It gives me particular pleasure to follow a gentleman who has addressed you in the capacity of a tenant-farmer, one who to my knowledge in his own business by the growth of more corn and raising more cattle and employing more labor to a given area of soil, excels most of his neighbours—a man so well entitled to speak to you on the subject of the interests of the agriculturalists of this country. We are not met here under the denomination of a reform meeting—a parliamentary and financial reform meeting; but it will be known to every one present that the general impression both here and abroad is, that this is a meeting for the purpose, so far as I am concerned in the matter, of discussing the question of protection or free trade, especially with reference to tenant farmers' interests in this matter. I remember speaking to an audience in this hall six years ago, and on that occasion going through the arguments necessary to show that the corn law was founded upon impolicy and injustice, I remember on that occasion maintaining the proposition that the corn law had not proved beneficial to any class of the community, and I ventured to say that the country would be more prosperous without the system of agricultural protection than it had been with it. Well, I am here now to maintain that by every test which can proclaim the prosperity or adversity of a nation, we stand better now without the corn law than we did when we had it (cheers, and some cries of no). I am rather glad to see that there are some dissentients from that proposition; our opponents will not say that this is a packed meeting. We have got some protectionists here. And now, if you will only keep that order which is necessary for any rational proceedings, I will endeavor to make you free traders before you leave. I said that, by every test which can decide the question of national prosperity or national adversity, we stand in a better position than when we had the corn law. What are the tests of a nation's prosperity? A declining or an improving revenue is one test. Well, our revenue is better than it was under a corn law. Our exports and our imports are better than they were under the corn law. Take the question of pauperism. I will not shrink even from the test of pauperism in the agricultural districts. I have the statistics of many of your unions in Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire, and I warn the protectionist orators, who are going about persuading themselves that they have a case in the matter of pauperism, that when Parliament meets, and Mr. Baines is enabled to bring forward the poor law statistics up to the last week (not going to the blue books and bringing forward the accounts of the previous year) I warn the protectionists that, with regard to the test of pauperism, even in the agricultural districts, it will be seen that things are more favorable now, with bread at a moderate price, than they were in 1847, when prices were to their hearts' content, and the loaf was nearly double the price it is now. Take the state of wages; that is a test of the condition of the people. What are the people earning now, compared with 1847, when the protectionists were so well satisfied with their high prices? Why, as a rule, throughout the country, there is more money earned now than there was then; and they are getting the comforts and necessities of life in many cases at two-thirds; and in some cases less than that, of the prices of 1847. (A voice: "It is not so with agricultural laborers.") I will come to them by and by. What I want you to agree with in the outset is that your laborers are not the nation; and if your agriculture be an exception to the rule, we must find out the reason why it is so; we will come to that by and by. I remember quite well, when I came here to see you before, how my ears used to be dinned by the argument that if we had free trade in corn, the gold would be all drained out of this country, for that you could not bring in 5,000,000 quarters of grain without being drained of your gold; that the foreigner would not take anything else in exchange. Why, we have had between 30,000,000 and 40,000,000 quarters within these last four years, and the Bank of England was never so encumbered with gold as it is now. I have spoken of wages, and I say that in every branch of industry the rate of wages has improved. You may say that agriculture is an exception. We will come to that, but I do not make an exception in favor of any trade in your district; for I have made particular inquiry, and I find,

even in the article of straw plaiting, that families that could not earn 15s. in 1847 are now earning 25s. (No, and some confusion.) I say families. I know we have some of the most extensive manufacturers in this hall. Then there is the lace trade, the pillow lace trade, employing a great number of women in Buckinghamshire. (Renewed confusion, owing to a gentleman pressing his way towards the platform. A voice: "He is a reporter.") Well, we are delighted to see the gentleman of the press; the more of them the better; what we say here will be read elsewhere, and we speak for that purpose. I was about saying, that even the wages of pillow lace makers have advanced, and they are getting their bread at two-thirds the former price. Even the poor chair makers of this and the adjoining county—a trade that has hardly known what it was to have a revival—are getting better; I repeat it, there is not an exception of any trade in which there is not an advantage gained by the moderate price of food that now prevails. (Not the lace makers.) They are getting more employment. But I want now to come to the question which interests you in this immediate neighborhood. If every other great interest of the state is thriving—no one can deny it—how is it that agriculture is depressed. How is it that the interests of agriculture stand in antagonism with the interests of the rest of the community? Why, these people have been proceeding upon a false system, they have been upon an unsound basis; they have been reckoning upon Act of Parliament prices; they have made their calculations upon Act of Parliament prices and now they find they are obliged, like other individuals, to be content with natural prices. What is the reason that agriculture cannot thrive as well as other trades. We find meetings called, purporting to be meetings of farmers, complaining of distress; and what is their remedy for that distress? Is it to go and talk like men of business to their landlords, and ask them for fresh terms of agreement, fresh arrangements, that they may have the raw material of their trade—the land—at the natural price, and free from those absurd restrictions that prevent their giving their natural value to it? No. Go to a meeting where there is a landlord in the chair, or a land agent—his better half—and you find them talking, but never as landlords or agents, but as farmers, and for farmers. And what do they say? Why, they say, "We must go to Parliament and get an Act of Parliament to raise the price of corn, that you may be able to pay us your rents." That is what it amounts to. Now, what ought to be the plan pursued by the landlord and tenant on an occasion like this? The landlord, as Mr. Disraeli very properly observed yesterday at Great Marlow, is an individual who has land, which is a raw material, and nothing more, to dispose of, and the farmer is a capitalist, who offers to take this raw material, in order that he may work it up and make a profit by it; in fact, the farmer and the landlord stand in precisely the same position that the cotton-spinner and the cotton merchant stand in. The cotton-spinner takes cotton wool from the cotton merchant, in order that he may spin it up at a profit. If he can get his raw material cheap, he can make a profit; and if not he cannot. But we never hear of the cotton-spinner and the merchant going together to Parliament for a law to keep up the price of cotton. I declare, when I find landlord and tenant running about raising the cry for "protection," and going to Parliament for a law to benefit them by raising the price of corn, I cannot help feeling humiliated at the spectacle, because it is a proof of want of intelligence on the one side, and, I fear, want of honesty, too, on the other. Now suppose you were to see a crowd of people running up and down the streets of Aylesbury, shouting out, "Protection! protection! oh, give us protection! we are all rowing in the same boat!" and when you inquired who these people were, you were told they were the grocers of Aylesbury and their customers, who were crying out for a law which would raise the price of all the hogsheads of sugar in the grocers' stores—would you not say that this was a curious combination of the grocers and their customers? Would you say that the interests of the men who had the hogsheads of sugar to sell, and who wished therefore to raise the price, could not be identical with that of the men who had to buy the sugar. Yet, that is precisely the position in which the tenant farmers and the land owners stand (cries of "No, no," and "Yes"). Well, will any gentleman rise on this platform and explain where I am wrong. Now, the plan I would recommend the tenant farmers and the land holders to pursue is precisely the plan which has been adopted by my own tenants and myself. I will explain how I acted in this matter. I promised I would explain my conduct, and I will do so; and if those newspapers that write for protectionist farmers report nothing else of what I may say to-night, I beg them to let their farming readers know what I am now going to say. (A voice: "How large are your farms?") I will tell you all about it. I happen to stand here in the quality of a landlord, filling, as I avowed to you at the beginning, a most insignificant situation in that character. I possess a small estate in West Sussex, of about 140 acres in extent, and a considerable part of it in wood. It is situated in a purely farming district, in the midst of the largest protectionist proprietors in Sussex; the land is inferior; it has no advantages; it is nearly ten miles distant from a railroad; it has no chimneys, no growing manufacturing towns to give it value. Now this is precisely the kind of land which we have been told again and again by Lord John Manners, the Marquis of Granby, and other protectionist land-

lords, cannot be cultivated at all with wheat at 40s., even if it were given to the cultivator rent free. This property came into my possession in 1847. (A voice: "You got it from the League Funds.") Yes; I am indebted for that estate, and I am proud here to acknowledge it, to the bounty of my countrymen. That estate was the scene of my birth and of my infancy; it was the property of my ancestors; it is by the munificence of my countrymen that this small estate, which had been alienated by my father from necessity, has again come into my hands, and that I am enabled to light up again the hearth of my fathers; and I say that there is no warrior duke who owns a vast domain by the vote of the Imperial Parliament, who holds his property by a more honorable title than that by which I possess mine.

My first visit to this property, after it came into my possession was in 1847. At that time, as you are aware, prices ranged high in this country; but never expecting those prices would continue, I thought that the proper time for every man having an interest in the land to prepare for the coming competition with the foreigner. I gave orders that every hedge-row tree upon my estate should be cut down and removed. I authorized the two occupying tenants upon the property to remove every fence upon the estate, or if they liked, to grub up only a portion of them; but I distinctly said I would rather not see a hedge remaining on the property, inasmuch as it was surrounded by woods, and I did not think fences were necessary. That portion of the land which required draining, I had instantly drained, at my own cost. The estate, as I have said, was situated in the midst of large protectionist land-owners, who, as a matter of course, were great game preservers; and it had therefore been particularly infested with hares and rabbits. I authorized the tenants on my land to kill the rabbits and hares, and to empower any one else they pleased to kill them.

So troublesome had been the hares and rabbits on that little property, that they even entered the gardens and allotments of the laborers; and one of those laborers appeared before the Committee of the House of Commons on the Game Laws in 1845, and stated that the rabbits had not only devoured the vegetables, his cabbages and his peas, but had actually dug up the potatoes. At that time—in 1845—the property did not belong to me; but I took care to explain to this worthy man, in 1848, when I visited the estate, that if the hares or rabbits ever troubled him, or the other laborers living upon my property, that under the present law any man may destroy hares on his own holding without taking out a license, and I advised the laborers to set gins and snares upon their allotments and in their gardens to catch all the hares and rabbits they could; and when they caught them, to be sure and put them in their own pots and eat them themselves. That is the way in which I dealt with the game on my property. I must confess that I have no taste whatever for the preservation of such vermin, which I believe to be utterly inconsistent with good farming, and the greatest obstacle to the employment of the laborer. For my own part I would rather see a good fat hog in every sty belonging to my laborers, than have the best game preserve in the country.

That, then, was the course which I took in 1848, to prepare for the coming competition with the foreigner. It was a time when prices ranged high; nothing was settled about rents.

In the course of the last year, however, I received a letter from one of my tenants, saying: "When I took this land from my predecessor, it was upon the calculation of wheat being at 56s. a quarter; it is now little more than 40s., and I should like to have a new arrangement made." I wrote in reply, "The proposition you make is reasonable. We will have a new bargain. I am willing to enter upon an arrangement, estimating the future price of wheat at 40s.; but whilst I am willing to take all the disadvantages of low prices; I must have the benefit of good cultivation, and therefore we will estimate the produce of the land to be such as could be grown by good farmers upon the same quality of soil."

Now, from the moment that this reasonable proposition was made, there was not the slightest anxiety of mind on the part of my tenants—not the least difficulty in carrying on their business of farming under a system of free trade as well as they had done under the system of protection. From that moment the farmers on this small property felt themselves no longer interested in the matter of free trade and protection, and the laborers felt that they had as good a prospect of employment as they had before, and they had no interest in the question of protection.

We settled our terms. I have bargained for my rent. It is no business of the public mind what rent I get. That is my business, and the business of the farmers; but if it is any satisfaction to my protectionist friends, I will admit that I am receiving a reduced rent, notwithstanding that I have drained the land, and given them the game, and removed the hedges, and cleared away every hedge-row tree.

What, then, becomes of the argument that it is impossible to carry on agriculture in this country with wheat at 40s. a quarter? I am getting some rent, and not so very large a reduction from the rent I got before; and it is enough for me to say that the land is being cultivated, and that farmers and laborers are employed and contented.

Now, with regard to a lease, I said to both my tenants, "Either take the land from year to year, with an agreement binding each of us to submit to arbitration the valuation of unexhausted improvements when you leave the land; or, if you like, take a lease, and I will bind you down to no covenants as to the way in which you are to cultivate the land while you possess it." What possible excuse, then, can the land owners in any part of the country have for coming forward and telling us that land cannot be cultivated, because wheat is 30s. a quarter? The answer I intend to give to those noble dukes and lords who are running about the country, and who are so angry with me, and are scolding me so lustily, is this: "Let me have the arranging of the affairs between you and your tenants,—the terms, the rent, and condition of the holdings,—and I will undertake to insure that your land shall be cultivated better than it was before, that farming shall be as profitable to the farmer, that the laborer shall have as full employment, and at as good wages, provided you allow me to enter into the same arrangements that I have made with my own tenants." But that would not suit these parties. It would make a dry, dull, unprofitable matter of business of what is now made a piece of agitation, which ought to be called moonshine.

Now, if I had been a protectionist, I might have made money by this. I will show you how I should have done so. When my tenants wrote to me to say there ought to be a fresh agreement between us, what would have been the answer, had I been a protectionist? I should have said, "That is true, my good friends; we will have a meeting at Great Marlow or High Wycombe, and we will petition Parliament to pass a law to protect you." Well, we should have had a meeting, my tenants would have been invited to attend, and would have shouted, "We are rowing in the same boat!" and after two or three hours of dull speeches, you would have had a conclusion with three groans for Cobden.

After this meeting was over, my tenants might have gone home, and might have been prepared, until the next audit, to pay their full rents as before. And if I was a protectionist landowner I should have then wanted some fresh excuse against the next audit day. Consequently I should probably have told the farmers to come to the next meeting, at 17 Old Bond Street, to memorialize her Majesty,—for they were not to be told to petition the House of Commons, but to lay their complaints at the foot of the throne. After my poor tenants had done all this and had gone home, and prepared their rents for next audit day, then some fresh excuse must be found, and we might have told the farmers that instead of memorializing the Queen, they should agitate for dissolution of Parliament. In this case we should have been safe in respect to our rents for the next three years, because that is an agitation which would last such a period. In the meantime what would be the consequence to my tenants. With heart-sickening delay, and with the hopelessness inspired into their soul by these dreary, dull, protectionists' speeches, telling them they could not cultivate their land, even if no rents were paid, and with a constant drain on their resources to pay their own rents, without amelioration in their holdings, one-half the tenants might be ruined, and I am not sure that a large proportion will not be ruined by the tactics of the protectionists at the present moment. But was it necessary for any farmer to be ruined if the landlords pursued the same system as myself. This is simply and purely a rent question. And if the farmers cannot carry on their business, it is because they pay too high a rent in proportion to the amount of their produce. I do not say that in many cases the rents of the landlords might not be excessive, provided the land were cultivated to its full capacity. But that cannot be done without sufficient capital, and that sufficient capital cannot be applied without sufficient security, or without a tenant right, or a lease amounting to a tenant right. We want to bring the landholder and the tenant together, to confront in their separate capacity as buyers and sellers, so that they might deal together as other men of business, and not allow themselves to play this comedy of farmers and landlords crying about for protection, and saying that they are rowing in the same boat, when in fact, they are rowing in two boats, and in opposite directions.

There is a new red herring thrown across the scent of the farmers; they are told that protection cannot be just now, but in the meantime they must have half the amount of the local rates thrown on the Consolidation Fund. I am really astonished that anybody should have the assurance to get up, and, facing a body of tenant farmers, make such a proposal to them for the benefit of the landowners. The local rates at present are paid on the real property of the country. Such is the nature of the poor rates and the county rates, etc.; they are not assessed on the tenant's capital. ("Hear," and a cry, "Mr. Lattimore said they are.") He said no such thing. (Some expressions of dissent.) He did not say that the assessment was on the plough and oxen of the tenantry. It is on the rent of land, and not on the floating capital, for it is known to everybody that the assessment is on the rent. Why, the tenant charges it to the landlord when he takes his farm. He calculates what the rates and taxes are, and if the farm is highly rated, he pays less rent. Did you ever know a landlord let his land tithe free on the same terms as land which had the tithe on it. At present the rates

were laid on the rent of land, and were ultimately paid by the landlord. I admit that at first the tenant pays it out of his pocket, but he gets it back again when he pays his rent.

But only think of this wise proposal of the farmer's friend, who says, in order to relieve you tenant farmers, I will take one-half of these £12,000,000 off local taxes and put it on the Consolidated Fund,—that is to say, on tea, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and other articles which you tenant farmers and laborers consume—there is a pretty project for benefitting the tenant farmers. But there is another scheme, there are two ways of doing this. The other way is by assessing the rates on the floating capital of the country. The argument is—why should not the shopkeepers, the bankers, and the fund holders be assessed. But if you allow the bringing in of stock-in-trade to be assessed, you must bring in the farmers' stock-in-trade to be assessed.

I now ask the farmers in Aylesbury and its neighborhood what they would gain if the value of all stock held upon land within the neighborhood of Aylesbury were assessed? Has not Mr. Lattimore told you that the estimated value of the farming stock of this Kingdom is £250,000,000. Then I can only say that it is five times as much as the capital invested in the cotton trade, and more than that employed in the great staple manufactures, together, and under such circumstances, how can those landlords tell the farmers that they would put rates on the floating stock? And is it not, then, a wise proposal to make to the farmers, to take off half of the rates, and to put the assessment on the floating capital, of which the farmer possesses the greater proportion.

I am humiliated when I read these meetings in which the farmers listen and gape at such speeches, and I feel a relief that it is not my duty to attend at such meetings, and that I have no landlord to oblige by being present at these meetings.



LA BANQUE DU PEUPLE.

This important Bank with its numerous branches is conducted almost entirely by French-Canadians. It was founded in 1835 as a private institution under the style of Viger, DeWitt & Cie. The business increased very rapidly, and the promoters had the foresight to grasp the future great possibilities of the country, and accordingly it was determined to extend the operations of the Bank, and a petition was forwarded to the Legislature for incorporation as "La Banque du Peuple." This petition received Her Majesty's sanction, and the charter was obtained in 1844. This charter gave the incorporators and their successors exclusive rights in the management of the Bank, and made them jointly and severally responsible for the Bank's debts, while the ordinary shareholders' liability was limited to the extent of their shares, payment for which was to absolve them from any other liabilities. This peculiar adoption of a permanent and interested supervision has certainly recommended itself to the shareholders, and has equally been appreciated by the general public.

The satisfactory manner in which the operations of the Bank were conducted was duly appreciated by the Government, as shown by its action in the year 1838. At that time of depression, the United States and Upper Canadian Banks suspended specie payment, and the Government allowed the chartered Banks of Lower Canada to discharge their obligations in money of their own issue, in order to prevent the country being drained of gold and silver. The private Bank of Viger, DeWitt & Co. was recognized by the Government as on an equality with the chartered Banks, and they were paid the high compliment of receiving the same permission to suspend specie payment for the space of one year, a distinction which was not accorded to any other private Bank.

The Directors and Managers of the Bank have always been men of the highest integrity and financial standing, and have received the entire confidence of the public. Many of them were engaged in other extensive business capacities, and have held the most prominent civic positions.

The present Cashier, Mr. J. T. Bousquet, is unanimously esteemed for the ability and courtesy with which he discharges his arduous duties. He possesses in an eminent degree the happy faculty of refusing a client in such an agreeable way, that there is no chance of feeling either mortified or indignant. Mr. Bousquet does not restrict himself to the performance of his direct duties, but has devoted considerable attention to the various vicissitudes of commercial interests in connection with financial matters. At the Annual Meeting of the Directors in 1887, he directed their attention to certain financial aspects then prevalent, and gave timely warning of the difficulties that would ensue. This created considerable surprise and caused much discussion, but his annual utterances are now eagerly waited for.

When the former Cashier retired in 1885, some demur was occasioned to Mr. Bousquet's advancement to the position owing to his extreme youth, but his sound reputation as a financier secured him the post.

The success which has attended his administration has fully justified the appointment, for during the last seven years the Reserve Fund has risen from \$200,000 to \$600,000, and the Bank's circulation has increased from \$537,039 to \$752,446. In the same time the Deposits, which are a more satisfactory test of public confidence, have risen from \$1,809,420 to \$6,310,408, and the Assets have been augmented, without change of the authorized capital, from \$3,957,374 to \$9,223,135, an enormous increase without parallel in Canadian Banking.

The following are the Bank's Offices, Agencies and Representatives:—

HEAD OFFICE, 97 ST. JAMES STREET, MONTREAL.

J. T. BOUSQUET, CASHIER.

BRANCHES—Managers.

QUEBEC, LOWER TOWN	P. B. DUMOULIN.
QUEBEC ST. ROCH.	NAPOLEON LAVOIE.
THREE RIVERS, P.Q.	P. E. PANNETON.
ST. JOHN'S, P.Q.	H. ST. MARS.
ST. REMI, P.Q.	C. BEDARD.
ST. JEROME, P.Q.	I. A. THEBERGE.
ST. HYACINTHE, P.Q.	J. LAFRAMBOISE.
ST. CATHERINE ST. E., MONTREAL.	A. FOURNIER.
NOTRE DAME ST. W., "	I. A. BLEAU.

Canadian Agents—

ONTARIO, . . . MOLSON'S BANK AND BRANCHES.
P. E. I., . . . MERCHANTS BANK OF HALIFAX.

Agents in U. S.—

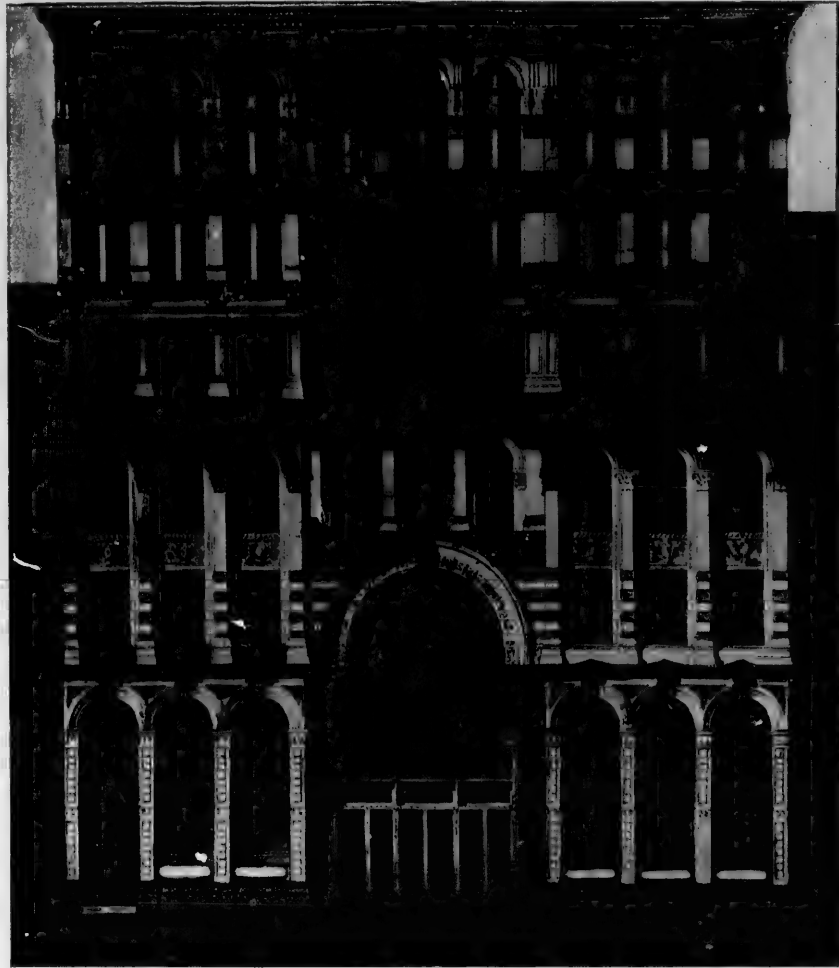
NEW YORK, . . . NATIONAL BANK OF THE REPUBLIC.
BOSTON, . . . REVERE NATIONAL BANK.

European Agents—

PARIS, . . . PARIS BANKING CO.
LONDON, . . . ALLIANCE BANK.

Letters of Credit and Circular Notes issued available throughout the world.

The new building at 97 St. James Street is one of the handsomest in Montreal. The old offices were incorporated in the modern structure, a triumph of architectural skill. The front of the Bank is very elegant and is beautifully carved and ornamented. It is constructed of Montreal Limestone, except at the entrance, which has a very dignified and imposing appearance. Here, columns of grey granite form the portico, and the side-walls consists of panels of various colored marbles, relieved by frames of yellow sandstone. A fine bas-relief panel stands over the doorway representing wealth being distributed by a Bank through the medium of com-



merce and agriculture. This beautiful work of art is to be retouched by Hébert, the eminent Canadian Sculptor. Separating the outer doors from the interior is a handsome leaded art-glass screen. The interior of the building is most artistically finished, and is unsurpassed by any of the other public buildings in the city. The arrangements for lighting and ventilation are perfect. In the centre is a large well, fitted with a muffled glass sky-light, which distributes the light in every part of the various offices. The Banking-Room is exceptionally large, and the fittings are handsome and of chaste design. The floor is tiled and the walls are artistically decorated. The counters and desks are constructed of red mahogany, and an elaborate railing with plate-glass screens, and the usual windows runs round the top of the semi-circular counter. The offices for the higher officials, and the Board room, are furnished and ornamented in the most luxurious manner. They are all comfortably heated and wired for electric light. Electric elevators supply a rapid means of transit between the different flats. In the basement are fire-proof specie, safe-deposit and book vaults.

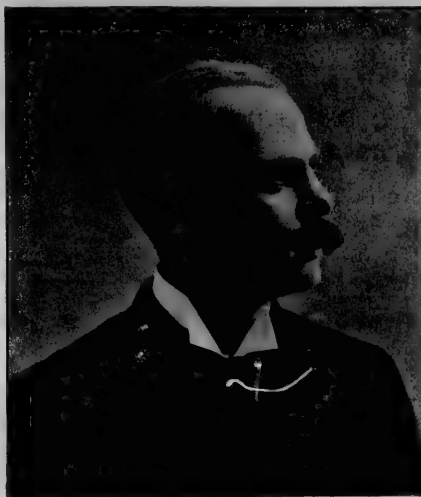
J. J. E. GUERIN, C.M., M.D.

AMONG the many eminent physicians of whom Montreal can boast, Dr. James John Edmond Guerin occupies a deservedly high position. His natural talents and love for his profession combined, with the most assiduous devotion to its cares and duties, has rendered him thoroughly efficient in the working of its various departments.

A Canadian by birth and an Irishman by extraction, he has always taken a keen interest in the affairs both of his native and ancestral countries, while not permitting either of them to withdraw him from the devotion to his professional duties, in which sphere he has attained an enviable eminence. He is noted for his unostentatious charity towards the poor and needy, who would otherwise suffer for want of proper medical attention.

Dr. Guerin is the son of the late Thomas Guerin, the well-known consulting engineer of the Public Works Department of the Dominion. He was born in Montreal on July 4th, 1856, and was educated under the care and direction of the Reverend Gentlemen of St. Sulpice in the Montreal College. From that institution he entered McGill University, where he pursued his medical studies and obtained his degrees in 1878, when he immediately began the practice of medicine. He very soon commanded an extensive clientele, and in the year 1880 he was appointed

physician to the Hotel-Dieu. At the time of the amalgamation of the Montreal School of Medicine with Laval University he was appointed to the chair of clinical medicine, and at the present time occupies the position of clinical chief in the medical department of the Hotel-Dieu, which he has held for the last ten years. Upwards of five hundred doctors have received their medical training at his hands in this institution, and as a consulting practice throughout the Province. A fine hospital has recently been established in Winooski, Vermont, to which he has received the appointment of chief consulting physician. He attended several city dispensaries which were patronized by such a number of persons that he had to discontinue his visits on account of his increasing practice several months in Paris, most celebrated masters and of increasing his professional associates as consulting physician to the Mount St. Louis College and to the Little Sisters of the Poor.



He has warmly interested himself in the working of the labor organizations of the city, and devoted much time and attention in their behalf. In the year 1886 he joined the Dominion Assembly of the Knights of Labor. At that time there was considerable antagonism existing against the Order; a feeling which was not guaranteed by actual facts, and Dr. Guerin, whose impulsive sympathies were strongly aroused, determined to assist the organization by the advantage of his cordial co-operation as a working member. Since then he has consistently identified himself with the principles formulated and acted upon, and has always proved a conscientious adviser and true supporter of the interests of the Order. There is no doubt that the prosperity and harmonious working of this prominent assembly is mainly due to the valuable assistance and co-operation of such responsible persons. It is no exaggeration to say that no member of the organization in this city has done more to ameliorate the condition of the working classes than the Doctor. This liberal spirit is duly appreciated by the members who requested him four years ago to accept the nomination for Mayor of Montreal. This honor was, however, declined on a matter of the highest principle, as he felt assured that attention to the mayoralty duties would necessarily prevent him from attending to the more important details of his professional work. He was appointed by the Dominion Government as one of the medical arbitrators to settle the claims of the Canadian volunteers, who were wounded or contracted disease during the North-West Rebellion.

Dr. Guerin is still a young man, and the measure of his attainments is yet unfilled. Whatever honors there may yet be in store for him, and we trust there are many, will be both well bestowed and well earned.

RAYMOND PRÉFONTAINE, M.P.

AMONG the many prominent politicians of Montreal and the Province of Quebec, there is no one better known by sight and reputation than Mr. Raymond Préfontaine, the enthusiastic member for the County of Chambly. Since the annexation of Hochelaga to the city in 1883, he has represented that ward in the City Council, and has officiated as Chairman of the Roads Committee, one of the most important positions in our municipal administration.

Like all men who plunge in their youth, into the maze intricacies of politics, with firm, strong convictions, he has necessarily made many adversaries, but no actual enemies. The former was a natural sequence after the many terrible contests which have taken place in his county but they all acknowledge and admire the good qualities of heart and mind, which have rendered him so immensely popular among his more immediate partisans. Defeated in 1878, he resolved to devote himself to the practice of his profession, but his fellow citizens in 1886 so strongly requested him to come forward, that he yielded to their wishes and again took up the Liberal National cause in Chambly, the scene of his first political struggle.

We still recall with pride the brilliant victory he achieved on that occasion: his fervid eloquence and the whole souled man himself into the contest, gained esteem of his opponents.

Since then Mr. Préfontaine most exclusively to municipal displayed considerable aptitude.

Since he has been Chairman, a number of public improvements, of which many have been inaugurated, but no one had the

Owing to his impulsive have seen inaugurated a sidewalks and streets, which

Ald. Préfontaine has not only the sympathy of the population and cordial co-operation, without prejudice, call man" of Montreal, and like enemy of routine, mud and is to give to us a metro-pol of a city well kept, and ably with the most prosper-

Mr. Préfontaine is one of the building of the bridge Longueuil, and he is most fervent in expatiating on the advantages which will accrue from its construction. He has never discouraged at any impediments in the way of progress, and always at the breach, he is ready to advocate and defend his rights under the most trying circumstances.

We have already told of the high estimation in which he is held in Chambly, and Hochelaga is just the same. Rouge or Bleu, all are united in his favor; so much so that he has been elected by acclamation several times, and is equally assured of being re-elected on each occasion that he presents himself.

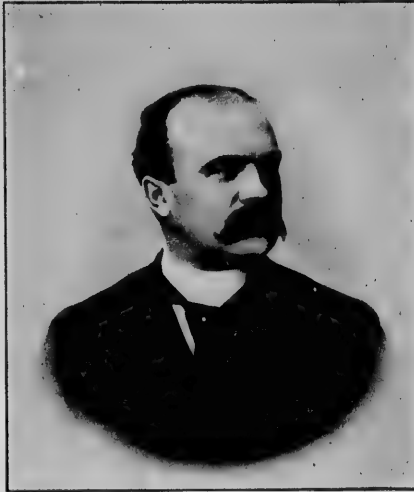
Raymond Préfontaine was born in Longueuil the 15th September, 1850, and is the son of Toussaint Préfontaine, an honest and industrious farmer much respected in Longueuil.

He obtained his classical education in the Jesuits College in Montreal, and having studied law under the late Chief Justice Sir A. A. Dorion, he was admitted to the bar in 1873.

He has since constantly practised his profession in Montreal, first with Mr. J. A. Perkins, Q.C., afterwards with the Hon. W. Prevost, and later with Mr. D. Major. He was associated with Mr. E. Lafontaine, Ex-M.P.P., later forming the society of Robidoux, Préfontaine, St. Jean & Gouin, and is now at the head of the firm of Préfontaine, St. Jean & Archer.

Elected in 1875, at the age of 25 years, member of Parliament for the County of Chambly, he was defeated in 1878; re-elected in 1879; defeated in 1881, and was elected for the Federal House in 1887.

Mr. Préfontaine married, in June 1876, Miss H. Rolland, daughter of the late Senator J. B. Rolland.



Préfontaine has devoted himself to municipal affairs, for which he has had the admiration and

man of the Roads Committee. Improvements have been achieved by his previous suggestion to proceed with.

and commanding spirit, we continuous construction of are a credit to the city.

happy faculty of gaining not public, but also the approbation of his colleagues. We him the "Baron de Haussmann" he is the born dust. His fondest dream is whose seat will be that which will compare favourably with the old world.

of the most active promoters between Montreal and London.

FAILURE OF REVENUE TARIFF AND OTHER SUBJECTS.

BY HENRY C. CAREY.

A Letter addressed to President Grant.

DEAR SIR :—An eminent foreigner, speaking of our countrymen, characterized them as "the people who soonest forget yesterday," and that nothing could be more accurate is shown by the facts which I propose now to give, as follows :—

The revenue tariff period which followed the close, in 1815, of the European war, was one of great distress, both private and public. Severe financial crisis bankrupted banks, merchants, and manufacturers, greatly contracted the market for labor and all its products ; so far diminished the money value of property as to place the debtor everywhere in the power of his creditor ; caused the transfer of a very large portion of it under the sheriff's hammer ; and so far impaired the power of the people to contribute to the revenue that, trivial as were the public expenditures of that period, loans were required for enabling the Treasury to meet the demands upon it. Under the protective tariff of 1828 all was changed, and with a rapidity so great that but few years of its action were required for bringing the country up to a state of prosperity the like of which had never before been known, here or elsewhere ; for annihilating the public debt ; and for causing our people wholly to forget the state of almost ruin from which they so recently had been redeemed.

Returning once again, as a consequence of this forgetfulness, to the revenue tariff system, the troubles and distresses of the previous period were reproduced, the whole eight years of its existence presenting a series of contractions and expansions, ending in a state of weakness so extreme that bankruptcy was almost universal ; that labor was everywhere seeking in vain for employment ; that the public credit was so entirely destroyed that the closing year of that unfortunate period exhibited the disgraceful fact of commissioners appointed by the Treasury, wandering throughout Europe and knocking at the door of all its principal banking houses without obtaining the loan of even a single dollar. Public and private distress now compelling a return to the protective system, we find almost at once a reproduction of the prosperous days of the period from 1829 to 1835. public and private credit having been restored, and the demand for labor and its products having become greater than at any former period.

Once again, however, do we find our people forgetting to the protective system has been due the marvellous changes that were then being witnessed, and again returning to that revenue tariff system, to which they had been indebted for the scenes of ruin which had marked the periods from 1817 to 1828, and from 1835 to 1842. California gold now, however, came in aid of free trade theories, and for a brief period our people really believed that protection was a dead issue and could never be revived. With 1854, however, that delusion passed away, the years that followed like those of the previous revenue tariff periods, having been marked by enormous expansions and contractions, financial crises, private ruin, and such destruction of the national credit, that with the close of Mr. Buchanan's administration, we find the Treasury unable to obtain the trivial amount which was then required, except on payment of enormous rates of interest.

Once again do we find the country driven to protection, and the public credit by its means so well established as to enable the Treasury with little difficulty to obtain the means of carrying on a war whose annual cost was more than the total public expenditures of half a century, including the war with Great Britain of 1812. Thrice thus, with the tariffs of 1828, 1842, and 1860, has protection redeemed the country from almost ruin. Thrice thus, under the revenue tariffs of 1817, 1835, and 1846, has it been sunk so low that none could be found, "so poor as do it reverence."

Such having been our experience through half a century, it might have been supposed that the question would be regarded now as settled, yet do we find among us men in office and out of office, secretaries and

senators, owners of ships and railroads, farmers and laborers, denouncing the system under which at every period of its existence, and most especially in that of the recent war, they had so largely prospered—thereby proving how accurate has been the description of them above referred to, as “the people who soonest forget yesterday.” Such being the case, it seems to me that it might be well to show what was the actual state of affairs throughout the country in the revenue tariff years immediately preceding the war, and thereby enable railroad owners to study what had been the effect upon their interests that had resulted from the cry of cheap iron; ship owners to see that the decay of their interests had been the necessary result of a system under which internal commerce had been destroyed; laborers to see why it had been that labor had then been so superabundant and so badly paid; farmers to see why it had been that their farms had then been so deeply mortgaged; secretaries to see why it had been that the public credit had then been so nearly annihilated; and all to see why it had been that the pro-slavery power had so largely grown as to have warranted the South in venturing on the late rebellion. To that end, I shall now present two letters written in 1858, and addressed to our then president, Mr. Buchanan, respectfully asking you to remark the predictions that further continuance in the same direction must result in financial and political ruin, and in our being driven from the ocean, all of which we now see to have been so fully realized.*

“Civilized communities,—those communities, Mr. President, which have obtained that freedom of intercourse which, as you have seen, we so sorely need—follow the advice of Adam Smith, in exporting their wool in the form of cloth, at little cost for transportation. Thus, France, in 1856, exported silks and cloths, clothing, paper, and articles of furniture, to the extent of \$300,000,000; and yet the total weight was short of *fifty thousand tons*—requiring for its transport but forty ships of moderate size, and the services of perhaps 2,000 persons. “Barbarous and semi-barbarous countries, on the contrary, export their commodities in their rudest state, at heavy cost for transportation. India sends the constituents of cloth, cotton, rice and indigo to exchange, in distant markets, for the cloth itself. Brazil sends raw sugar across the ocean, to exchange for that which has been refined. We send wheat and Indian corn, pork and flour, cotton and rice, fish, lumber and naval stores, to be exchanged for knives and forks, silks and cottons, paper and chinaware. The total of these commodities exported in 1856—high as were then the prices—were only \$230,000,000; and yet, the American and foreign ships engaged in the work of transport were of the capacity of *six millions, eight hundred and twenty-two thousand tons*,—requiring for their management no less than 269,000 persons.†

“In the movement of all this property, Mr. President, there is great expense for transportation. Who pays for it? Ask the farmer of Iowa, and he will tell you, that he sells for 15 cents—and that, too, payable in the most worthless kind of paper—a bushel of corn that, when received in Manchester, commands a dollar: and that he, in this manner, gives to the support of railroads and canals, ships and sailors, brokers and traders, no less than eighty-five per cent. of the intrinsic value of his products. Ask him once again, and he will tell you that while his bushel of corn will command, in Manchester, 18 or 20 yards of cotton cloth, he is obliged to content himself with little more than a single yard—eighty-five per cent. of the clothing power of his corn having been taken on the road, as his contribution towards the tax imposed upon the country, for the maintenance of the machinery of that “free trade” which, as you Mr. President, have so clearly seen, is the sort of freedom we do not, at present, need.‡

“The country that exports the commodity of smallest bulk, is almost wholly freed from the exhausting tax of transportation. At Havre—ships being little needed for the outward voyage, while ships abound—the outward freights must be always very low.

“The community that exports the commodities of greatest bulk, must pay nearly all the cost of transportation. A score of ships being required to carry from our ports the lumber, wheat, or naval stores, the tobacco, or the cotton, required to pay for a single cargo of cloth, the outward freights must always be at, or near, that point which is required to pay for the double voyage; and every planter knows, to his cost, how much the price of his cotton is dependent upon the rate of freight.

In the first of these, Mr. President, employments become from day to day more thoroughly diversified; the various human faculties become more and more developed, the power of combinations tends steadily to increase, agriculture becomes more and more a science, the land becomes more productive, the societary move-

*These letters form part of a series, “Letters to the President of the United States on the Foreign and Domestic Policy of the Union and its Effects, as exhibited in the Condition of the People and the State.” Phila., 1858.

†This is the total tonnage that arrived from foreign countries in that year. A small portion was required for the exportation of manufactured commodities, but it was so small as scarcely to require notice.

‡Thirty-one independent States enjoying a thousand advantages and carrying on a mutual free trade with each other. That is the free “trade” that we really want.”—Buchanan.

ment becomes more staple and regular, and the power to purchase machinery of every kind, whether ships, mills, or the precious metals, tends steadily to augment. In the last, the reverse of this is found, the pursuits of men becoming less diversified, the demand for human faculty becoming more and more limited to that for mere brute force, or for the craft by which the savage is so much distinguished; the power of association tending to decline, agriculture becoming less and less a science, and the land becoming more and more exhausted, the societary movement acquiring more and more the fitfulness and the regularity of movement you have so well described as existing among ourselves; and the power to obtain machinery of any kind tending steadily to diminish. The first of these, Mr. President, may be found in the countries of Central and Northern Europe. Those which follow in the lead of Colbert and of France. All of these are gradually emancipating themselves from the most oppressive of all taxes, the tax of transportation. All of them, therefore, are moving in the direction of growing wealth and power, with correspondent advance in civilization and in freedom. The last may be found in Ireland, India, Jamaica, Portugal, Turkey and these United States—the countries which follow in the lead of England. All of these are becoming more and more subjected to the tax of transportation. All of them, therefore, are declining in wealth and power, in civilization and in freedom. In the first the land yields more and more with each successive year—with constant increase in the power of a bushel of wheat, or a pound of wool, to purchase money; in the last the land yields less from year to year, with constant tendency to decline in the price of food and cotton. The first import the precious metals. The last export them. The first find daily increase of power to maintain a specie circulation as the basis of the higher and better currency supplied by banks. The last are gradually losing the power to command a circulation of any kind, and tending more and more towards that barbarian system of commerce which consists in exchanging labor against food, or wool and corn against cloth.

"We may be told, however, Mr. President, that in return for the 85 per cent. of his products, that, as we see, is paid by the farmer of Iowa and by the Texan planter, we are obtaining a magnificent system of railroads—that our mercantile marine is rapidly increasing—that, by its means, we are to secure the command of the commerce of the world, etc., etc. How far all this is so, we may now enquire.

"To me it certainly appears that if this be really the road to wealth and power, it would be well to require the exportation of wheat instead of flour, paddy in place of rice, cotton in the seed, corn in the ear, and lumber in the shape of logs, rather than in that of furniture. Looking first to our internal commerce, we find a mass of roads, most of which have been constructed by help of bonds bearing interest at the rate of six, eight, or ten per cent.—bonds that have been disposed of in the market at 60, 70, or 80 per cent. of their nominal value, and could not now, probably, be resold at more than half the price at which they originally had been bought. Half made, and little likely ever to be completed, these roads are worked at great expense, while requiring constant and great repairs. As a consequence of this it is that the original proprietors have almost wholly disappeared, the stock being of little worth. The total amount applied to the creation of railroads having been about \$1,000,000,000, and the average present money value scarcely exceeding 40, if even 30 per cent., it follows that \$600,000,000 have been sunk and with them all power to make new roads. Never, at any period of our history, have we been, in this respect, so utterly helpless as at present. Nevertheless, the policy of the central government looks steadily to the dispersion of our people, to the occupation of new territories, to the creation of new States, and to the production of a necessity for further roads. That, Mr. President, is the road to physical and moral decline, and political death, as will soon be proved, unless we change our course.

"The railroad interest being in a state of utter ruin, we may now turn to the shipping one, with a view to see how far we are likely, by its aid, to obtain that command of the commerce of the world so surely promised to us by the author of the tariff of '46. Should that prove to be moving in the same direction, the fact will certainly afford new and stronger proof of the perfect accuracy of your own views, Mr. President, as to the sort of freedom we so much require. In a state of barbarism, person and property being insecure, the rate of insurance is high. Passing thence towards civilization, security increases, and the rate of insurance declines, as we see it to be so rapidly doing in reference to fire, in all the advancing countries of Europe. Our course, in reference to shipping, being in the opposite direction, security diminishing, when it should increase, the rate of insurance steadily advances, as here is shown.

RATES OF INSURANCE UPON AMERICAN SHIPS.

	1846.	1858.
To Cuba	1½ per cent.	1½ to 2 per cent.
Liverpool	1½ "	1½ to 2 "
India and China	1¾ "	2½ "
To and from Liverpool on packet ships,		
annual rate	5 "	8 "

"To what causes, Mr. President, are we to attribute this extraordinary change? May it not be found in the fact, that the more we abandon domestic commerce, and the larger the amount of taxation imposed upon our farmers for the maintenance of transporters, the greater becomes the recklessness of those who gain their living out of that taxation? Look back to the last free-trade period—that from 1837 to 1841—and you will find phenomena corresponding precisely with those which are now exhibited, although not so great in magnitude. At present, the utter recklessness—the total absence of conscientious feeling—here exhibited, is such as to astonish the thinking men of Europe. Railroad accidents have become so numerous as scarcely to attract even the momentary attention of the reader, and the loss of life becomes greater from year to year. Steamers are exposed to the storms of the lakes that are scarcely fit to navigate our rivers. Ships that are unfit for carrying insurable merchandise, are employed in the carriage of unfortunate passengers, they being the only commodity for whose safe delivery the ship-owner cannot be made responsible. Week after week the records of our own and foreign courts furnish new evidence of the decline in the feeling of responsibility which, thirty years since, characterized the owners of American ships, and the men therein employed.

"Look where we may, Mr. President, on the sea or on the land, evidences of demoralization must meet our view. 'Stores and dwellings'—and here I give the words of a New York journal—are constructed of such wretched materials as scarcely to be able to sustain their own weight, and with apologies for walls which tumble to the ground after being exposed to a rain of a few hours duration, or to a wind which possesses sufficient force to set the dust of the highways in motion. Entire blocks of edifices are put up with the joists of all so connected with each other as to form a complete train for the speedy communication of fire from one to another. Joists are built into flues, so that the ends are exposed to becoming first heated, and then ignited by a flying spark. Rows of dwellings and warehouses are frequently covered with a single roof, which has not, in its whole extent of combustible material, a parapet wall, or other contrivance, to prevent the spread of the flames in the event of a conflagration."

"The feeling of responsibility, Mr. President, grows with the growth of real civilization. It declines with the growth of that mock civilization but real barbarism, which has its origin in the growing necessity for ships, wagons, and other machinery of transportation. The policy of the central government tends steadily towards its augmentation, and hence it is that American shipping so steadily declines in character, and in the proportions which it bears to that of the foreigners with whom we are required to place ourselves in competition.

"Two years since, we were told, that our shipping already exceeded 5,000,000 tons; that we had become the great maritime power of the world; and, of course, that this great fact was to be received as evidence of growing wealth and power. Last year, however, exhibited it as standing at only 4,871,000 tons, and future years are likely to show a large decrease—ships having become most unprofitable. More than four-fifths of the products of Western farms and Southwestern plantations, are, as we have seen, taken for the support of railroads and ships; and yet the roads are bankrupt, while the ships have done little more for some years past, than ruin the men who owned them. Such being the case, it seems little likely, that it is by means of sailing ships we are to acquire that control of the commerce of the world, so confidently promised when, in 1846, we were led to abandon the policy which looked to the creation of a domestic commerce as the true foundation of a great foreign one. What are the prospects in regard to that higher description of navigation which invokes the aid of steam, will be shown in another letter.

Yours very truly,

HENRY C. CAREY."

Gen. U. S. Grant,
Philadelphia, December 10, 1868.

ALD. N. A. HURTEAU.

THE French-Canadian citizens of Montreal have an able and worthy representative in Ald. N. A. Hurteau, who, during the last few years, has become a prominent factor in civic politics, and is highly esteemed for his business energy and enterprise.

He was born in Longueuil in 1857, and at a very early age was initiated into the mysteries of the lumber trade. He quickly developed an unusual business capacity which, combined with a shrewd intelligent insight into the minute details of the intricate working of the business, very soon enabled him to greatly extend his operations and establish a very large concern on a solid and substantial basis. In 1880 he formed a company under the style of "Hurteau Bros.," a firm which has developed to a most extraordinary extent, and has become synonymous with advancement and progress. It has acquired a firm hold on the public confidence, and its transactions are carried on from the Atlantic to the Pacific. There is no business man in Canada who is held in higher estimation, and has earned such a well deserved reputation for commercial integrity and ability. He has gained the respect and esteem of his large staff of employees, who wisely adapt themselves to his judicious treatment.

Although necessarily erable time and attention ment of his commercial taken a keen interest in mupended a vast amount of promoting every measure ment of the city. He was James Ward in 1888, and ever since, having been three different occasions. minent member of the Fi-years until 1893, when he Chairman. In 1890, in con-he went to Europe and suc-of \$3,000,000, and in 1892, a loan of \$5,000,000 with withstanding the universal this time, he proved his from capitalists in Havre, at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less than of New York and Chicago, in floating their bonds.

One of the most bene-regard to the collection of been introduced and strongly advocated by him. He desires to have the tax paid quarterly by the tenants instead of yearly as at present. By this means the landlords would not be held responsible and the tenants would still be able to exercise their right of being able to vote at the municipal elections.

Mr. Hurteau is a director of the St. Jean Baptiste Society; the Commercial Travellers' Association of the Dominion, and of the Montreal Exposition Company. He is an active and energetic member of the Montreal Board of Trade and of the Chambre de Commerce, in both of which institutions he takes the deepest interest.

He has energetically supported the conservative party, and has always proved one of the staunchest advocates of every political measure that promised to be a benefit to the country. It is a matter of deep regret that a fear of physical debility has prevented him from taking a more prominent position in party politics. He has felt compelled to decline nomination for the mayoralty and has resisted the most earnest persuasion of his friends to enter the Dominion Parliament. Although disappointed, his friends still hope to have their wishes realized, and look forward to the time when they will be efficiently represented by him at Ottawa.

He has always been a warm friend of the working classes, and he has never allowed an opportunity to pass without his voice and vote being heard and given in their behalf, and his time and purse have often been utilized for their benefit. This generous disinterestedness on his part has endeared him to his humbler fellow-workers, who have a sincere appreciation of his upright and manly qualities.



From "Souvenir Maisonneuve."

compelled to devote consid-to the successful manage-affairs, Mr. Hurteau has nicipal matters, and has ex-nergy in advocating and for the benefit and advance-ected Alderman for St. has represented this Ward elected by acclamation on He was an active and pro-nance Committee for several succeeded Ald. Rolland as cert with Ald. Clendinneng, cessfully negotiated a loan he satisfactorily arranged the Bank of Montreal. Not-depression that prevailed at financial ability by securing France, a loan of \$1,000,000 those acquired by the cities who only partially succeeded

ficial improvements with the water tax has lately

JOSEPH C. ROBERT.

DURING the last decade very few of the Montreal aldermen have conducted their municipal functions in a more satisfactory manner than Mr. J. C. Robert. Notwithstanding the time and trouble requisite for the proper administration of an extensive business, he has contrived to spare sufficient leisure to occupy himself with civic affairs. During this period his thorough knowledge of business transactions and his intimate acquaintance with financial matters have proved to be of great benefit to the city. The splendid improvements made in the city in connection with the streets, roads, sanitary arrangements, harbor extension, etc., have always found a warm advocate in Mr. Robert, who views with a prophetic eye the future expansion of the city.

Mr. J. C. Robert, lumber merchant and manufacturer, was born in Montreal, on the 28th of April, 1855. He received his education at the Colleges of St. Laurent and Montreal, and obtained his diploma at the age of seventeen. He then became engaged in the lumber business, in which he displayed considerable aptitude and developed the business capacity which has proved so eminently successful.

The rapid expansion of our Canadian cities and towns has caused a corresponding increase in the demand for all kinds of building materials, and Mr. Robert has not been slow to take advantage of the times. He has extensive premises, and has most approved machinery wood-work. In this age of successful held his own.

At a very early age he volunteered and served Montreal Garrison Artillery. He took an active part in the North-west Rebellion, having commanded, No. 4 Company. In this campaign he received the approval of his superior officers.

In 1885 he was prevailed upon to run for municipal office in St. Mary's Ward, to large majority. During his term he has always shown matters of progress and has taken any measures for the improvement of the city. He has occupied several of the positions of the City Council, acting on the Roads and Fire Committees and as Chairman of the Police Committee in 1894.

He has always been a consistent supporter of the Liberal Party, and has identified himself with all the prominent measures introduced by them. In 1892 he was unanimously chosen to be the principal speaker and organizer for the Party in the County of Jacques Cartier, and in that capacity has given entire satisfaction.

Although a strong party supporter, he does not meekly yield his own independent convictions, and his energetic and conscientious advocacy of any proposals which he believes to be beneficial generally secures the support of his *confrères*. This determined vigor and honesty of purpose has gained for him the esteem and confidence of hosts of friends.

He is a member of several local societies, in whose welfare he takes a warm interest.

Mr. Robert is very happy in his relations with his workmen, who cordially testify to his uniform geniality and consistent kindness towards them. He has always proved himself a steadfast friend of the working classes, and has constantly advocated and supported any measures for their benefit. He has a happy knack of being able to sift out the peculiar complications that arise among the numerous questions concerning them and his impartial judgment has always received the greatest consideration.

In 1878 he married Mlle. G., the daughter of Mr. F. X. Roy, the well-known carriage maker of Montreal.



From Souvenir Maisonneuve.

interested himself in the volunteer movement and served in the Victoria Rifles and He afterwards occupied the position of Major in the 65th active part in the North-west Rebellion. He then came to Montreal from Calgary to Edmonton. He then came to Montreal from Calgary to Edmonton. He then came to Montreal from Calgary to Edmonton.

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O. M. AUGÉ, M.P.P.

AMONG the many brilliant French-Canadian advocates which ornament the Bar of Montreal, Mr. O. M. Augé occupies a high and honorable position. His legal acumen, logical debating powers, sound reasoning, and thorough knowledge of the minute intricacies of his profession, entitles him to rank with the first of our legal luminaries.

These qualities have enabled him to successfully carry through the most difficult and abstruse cases that have ever been submitted to the civil and criminal courts of this city. In all his suits he devotes his whole energy and talents in thoroughly mastering the case and acquiring sufficient material to combat the evidence of his opponents. This has proved the chief element of his great success, and has secured for him a high reputation.

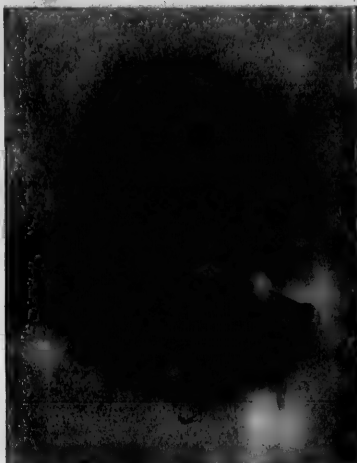
Mr. Augé was born in Sorel, in the County of Richelieu, in the year 1846. He completed his studies at the Joliette College, which has always had a deservedly high reputation for turning out some of the most distinguished classical scholars in the country. He was very assiduous and persevering in his studies, and occupied the proud position of being premier of his class. On finishing his classical course he entered the office of the present Judge of law, and was afterwards Cartier, Pominville & Betime and attention to the work, and acquired a thotails. He was admitted to guished himself as an advohis clear intelligence, and must embarrassing and tech-

His extraordinary abili-
dence of a discerning public,
lucrative and well estab-

He has been eminently
many of the most important
in Canada, and his energy,
bined with his extensive le-
for him the esteem and ad-
zens.

His practice expanded
pelled to form a partnership
afterwards with Messrs.

Mr. Augé gained his
place among the famous
He remained at the head of



From "Souvenir Maisonneuve"

Baby to study the practice
associated with Messrs.
tournez. He gave his whole
prosecution of his chosen
rough knowledge of its de-
the bar in 1867. He distin-
cate by his able eloquence,
wonderful insight into the
nical points of law.

ty soon gained the confi-
and he very soon gained a
lished practice.

successful in conducting
cases that have been tried
tact and discernment com-
gal knowledge have secured
miration of his fellow-citi-

so rapidly that he was com-
with Mr. Lafortune, and
Leclaire and Chaffers.

Silk in 1884, and took his
Q.C.'s of the Montreal Bar.
the firm until recently.

Although his time is necessarily much occupied with the duties of his profession, he was persuaded by the electors of the St. James division of Montreal to accept the candidature of the Conservative party to represent them in the local legislature. He was duly elected in 1892, and was soon recognized on the floor of the House as a close reasoner and sound debater.

Although closely identified with the Conservative party, he has always asserted his own independent convictions, which always receive the greatest attention. His measure introduced to the House in the interest of the city has been closely studied and carefully considered by him. His sympathy and consideration for the laboring classes was most effectively shown in the introduction and passing of several important amendments in the "Lien Law." These clauses enable the laborer, workman and builder to have the first charges for their work on all immovables. These valuable privileges were only obtained after considerable opposition from the real estate people. It can be stated without fear of contradiction that no more able and sincere champion of the cause of the working classes can be found on the continent of America than the able representative of St. James ward in the Quebec Legislature.

Mr. Augé has been connected for several years with the St. Jean-Baptiste Society, and with various other organizations devoted to benevolent purposes.

Mr. Augé is now in partnership with Mr. Arthur Globensky, Syndic of the Bar of Montreal, and Mr. Lamarre.

HON. J. J. CURRAN, SOLICITOR-GENERAL OF CANADA

One of the greatest evidences of ability in a politician is the delicate tact by which he conciliates the various conflicting interests that agitate his constituents when composed of different races and creeds. This statesmanlike quality is possessed by Mr. Curran in an eminent degree.

During his many years of public life, he has endeared himself to all classes of his electorate in a most wonderful manner. An Irish-Canadian Roman Catholic himself, swayed by the deepest convictions of his religious faith, and ever ready to uphold its banner in its legitimate pursuits, he has always been on the side of truth and justice, irrespective of creeds and nationalities. This manly honesty and integrity of purpose was properly acknowledged by the leading citizens of Montreal at a meeting held in the rooms of the Board of Trade in December, 1891. As a mark of appreciation of his valuable public services, and as a testimony of his high character, he was presented with an illuminated address and a purse containing the munificent sum of \$7,000. One of the clauses of the address was couched in the following gratifying terms:—"Your constituents realize that though in conformity with the wise compromise, now accepted as binding, you are selected from the ranks of the Irish Catholic electorate, you have faithfully and efficiently represented all classes of your constituency, irrespective of race or religion."

This eulogistic testimony was confirmed and supplemented by many of the most prominent leading men of the Dominion.

Mr. Curran was born at 1842. His parents came to the present century. He was educated at St. Mary's College, in 1859. He entered the law, and obtained his degree in March, 1863, he was called to the Bar of Lower Canada, and in 1876 became a Q.C. from the Quebec Government. In the same year had the high honor conferred upon him by Cardinal held at Manhattan College. Ottawa also granted him

The industry, energy and ability displayed by him during his legal practice, position among his legal confreres, and he has achieved a high reputation for his superior knowledge of civil and criminal law. At the Convention of Ottawa University in May, 1895, Mr. Curran was elected vice-dean in succession to Hon. Justice Fournier, of the Supreme Court of Canada, who resigned from ill-health.

He was early attracted by the peculiar charms of public life, with its ever-varying turmoils and vicissitudes, and from his youth upwards has been a constant contributor to the public press. He joined the St. Patrick's Society at the age of 18, and has ever since been a constant and ardent supporter of that noble institution. One of the chief reasons that has gained for him such an intense popularity is his extreme generosity and genial manners. He is always ready to lecture on political, historical and social topics for the benefit of charitable institutions and kindred societies, and the majority of our cities and towns have to thank him for his valuable assistance. He has always been a strong advocate for popular education, and his sympathy and help has been constantly accorded to the working classes, by whom he is held in the warmest affection and esteem. In 1874 he unsuccessfully opposed the Hon. L. S. Huntingdon for the Dominion Parliament, but in 1882 he was elected for Montreal Centre, his present constituency, by a majority of nearly 1,300 over Ald. W. Farrell. In 1887 he defeated H. J. Cloran by 941, and in 1892 he was again victorious, defeating Mr. E. Guerin by 1,230. The whole of his parliamentary career has been a series of intellectual triumphs. He has ever been foremost in leading the party debates in the parliamentary arena, and has been a tower of strength in the electoral campaigns. He is most successful in restoring harmony among dissentients at a public meeting, and his winning eloquence has often dispelled a gathering storm.



Montreal on the 22nd Feb., over from Ireland early in his early education was obliged, and he completed his law faculty of McGill College of B.C.L. in 1862.

called to the Bar of Lower Canada came a Q.C. by patent from In 1882, he received the Dominion Government, and distinction of LL.D. conferred by McClosky at the Convention In 1885 the University of the degree of LL.D.

and ability displayed by him gave him a very prominent position at the Bar for his superior knowledge of civil and criminal law.

HON. JOHN S. HALL, Q.C.

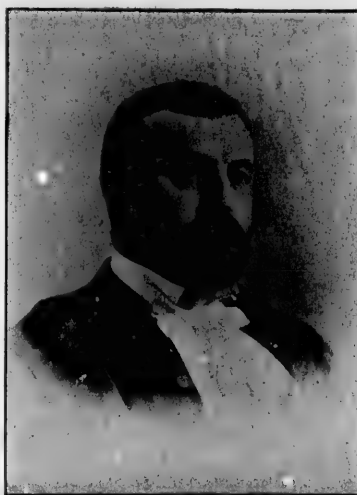
VERY few of the younger politicians of the Dominion have risen to the front with such amazing rapidity as the subject of our sketch. A true conservative, he retains the independence of his own convictions, and utterly disdains the means and paths so often followed by those anxious to secure a position in the management of public affairs.

Having attained to one of the highest positions in the Quebec Cabinet, he did not scruple to resign his elevated functions and portfolio with emoluments attached, when they were antagonistic to his own ideas of right and justice, and when he considered them subversive to the best interests of the province. This manly behaviour, although causing much disquietude to the leaders of his party, gained for him the confidence and good will of Montreal's most reputable citizens.

Mr. Hall was born in Montreal, 7th August, 1853. He was the son of John S. Hall, senr., a member of the late well known firm of Grant, Hall & Co., extensive lumber merchants of this city. He received his preliminary education at Bishop's College and afterwards at McGill University. From this latter institution he graduated B.A. in 1874, and B.C.L. in 1875. He chose Law as his ultimate profession and studied its intricacies with diligence and to the Provincial Bar of such remarkable aptitude pointed Q. C. so early as received the hearty congratulatory "silk" at such career. For some years he the eminent law firm of Brown; the Hon. J. A. State for Canada, and at the Province of Quebec, nominal head. During his eminent firm he has concurred, and appeared in that Councils of England on legal firm is now conducted Cross, Brown & Sharp, and confidence of the higher classes.

Mr. Hall's ambition to politics as the proper sphere in which to accomplish his higher aims and talents and administrative entered into the political of the General Elections, member of the Legislative Assembly for the then division of Montreal west. In 1890 he was returned by acclamation for the fifth division of the city of Montreal, and in 1892 was returned for the same division by over 2200 majority. His parliamentary career has been singularly successful. A keen debater, a sound reasoner, and a peculiar aptitude for financial matters, rendered him of the utmost service to his party, while his industry in committee work and general straightforwardness gained for him the confidence and esteem of all parties. At the dismissal of the Mercier Government by the Lieut.-Governor in December, 1892, Mr. Hall was entrusted by the new Premier, Hon. Mr. DeBoucherville, with the important portfolio of Treasurer of the Province, which honorable position he recently resigned on account of disagreement with M. Taillon, in regard to the floating of a new loan and the financial policy resulting. This regrettable circumstances however disagreeable to the prominent leaders of his party, has more firmly cemented the bond of union between himself and his constituents. Mr. Hall was elected a member of the corporation of McGill University in 1883, and re-elected in 1886. He was also president of the University Literary Club in 1880, and of the McGill Graduate Society in 1884; and also of the Junior Conservative Club of Montreal. He has always taken an active and lively interest in the operations of the Volunteer Force, and is now Major, commanding the Montreal Field Battery of Canadian Artillery, which has a justly deserved reputation for its efficiency and general appearance.

Mr. Hall married in January, 1883, Miss Brigham, of Ottawa.



He was called Quebec in 1876, and showed and ability that he was appointed in 1887, on which occasion he was called to the bar. His early period of his legal was the active head of Chapleau, Hall, Nicholls & Chapleau, late Secretary of present Lieut.-Governor of being the senior partner and connection with this produced many most important capacity before the Privy several occasions. This great under the style of Hall, has well earned the confidence in Montreal.

early prompted him to look sphere in which to accomplish his higher aims and talents and administrative entered into the political of the General Elections, member of the Legislative Assembly for the then division of Montreal west. In 1890 he was returned by acclamation for the fifth division of the city of Montreal, and in 1892 was returned for the same division by over 2200 majority. His parliamentary career has been singularly successful. A keen debater, a sound reasoner, and a peculiar aptitude for financial matters, rendered him of the utmost service to his party, while his industry in committee work and general straightforwardness gained for him the confidence and esteem of all parties. At the dismissal of the Mercier Government by the Lieut.-Governor in December, 1892, Mr. Hall was entrusted by the new Premier, Hon. Mr. DeBoucherville, with the important portfolio of Treasurer of the Province, which honorable position he recently resigned on account of disagreement with M. Taillon, in regard to the floating of a new loan and the financial policy resulting. This regrettable circumstances however disagreeable to the prominent leaders of his party, has more firmly cemented the bond of union between himself and his constituents. Mr. Hall was elected a member of the corporation of McGill University in 1883, and re-elected in 1886. He was also president of the University Literary Club in 1880, and of the McGill Graduate Society in 1884; and also of the Junior Conservative Club of Montreal. He has always taken an active and lively interest in the operations of the Volunteer Force, and is now Major, commanding the Montreal Field Battery of Canadian Artillery, which has a justly deserved reputation for its efficiency and general appearance.

FREE TRADE SHOULD BE THE ULTIMATE END AND AIM OF TARIFF LEGISLATION.*

BY EX-PRESIDENT JAMES A. GARFIELD.

I stand now where I have always stood since I have been a member of this House. I take the liberty of quoting, from the *Congressional Globe* of 1866, the following remarks which I then made on the subject of the tariff:

"We have seen that one extreme school of economists would place the price of all manufactured articles in the hands of foreign producers by rendering it impossible for our manufacturers to compete with them; while the other extreme school, by making it impossible for the foreigner to sell his competing wares in our market, would give the people no immediate check upon the prices which our manufacturers might fix for their products. I disagree with both these extremes. I hold that a properly adjusted competition between home and foreign products is the best gauge by which to regulate international trade. Duties should be so high that our manufacturers can fairly compete with the foreign product, but not so high as to enable them to drive out the foreign article, enjoy a monopoly of the trade, and regulate the price as they please. This is my doctrine of protection. If Congress pursues this line of policy steadily, we shall, year by year, approach more nearly to the basis of free trade, because we shall be more nearly able to compete with other nations on equal terms. I am for a protection which leads to ultimate free trade. I am for that free trade which can only be achieved through a reasonable protection."

Mr. Chairman, examining thus the possibilities of the situation, I believe that the true course for the friends of protection to pursue is to reduce the rates on imports wherever we can justly and safely do so, and, accepting neither of the extreme doctrines urged on this floor, endeavor to establish a stable policy that will commend itself to all patriotic and thoughtful people.

Modern scholarship is on the side of free trade.

* U. S. House of Representatives, April 1, 1870.

FREE TRADE FOR SHIPPING.

By HON. JAMES G. BLAINE, LL.D.

WHEN you build a ship for the commerce of the world, you send it abroad to compete with every other ship in every other country. You are unable by your laws to give her any protection or to prevent the greatest competition from every other nation in the world. When you protect your manufactures at home by laying on a duty upon the same manufacture of other countries, why, sir, you shut out the entire competition of the world. If you levy an internal revenue tax upon our manufactures here, you at the same time raise the tariff duty in order that the internal tax may not depress the home manufacture or give an advantage to the foreign article. You raise the tariff in order that you may shut out foreign competition.

I say further, Mr. Speaker, that I object entirely to this being considered a bounty to the ship-builder. I object utterly to it. I deny it. I deny that it is a bounty. I say that all the ship-builders ask is to be relieved from these burdens. There is a wide distinction in the logic and statement of the case. You find no protection to these ships. If I build a ship on the banks of the Kennebec, send her to Liverpool, and she meets a ship from the banks of the St. John, or from any other part of the world, now what protection do your laws give her over the foreign ships? What protection do you give her? Not the slightest in the world.

There is one fact further which gentlemen ignore entirely, and that is the freights of these ships are in many instances more valuable than the cargoes they carry, the immense trade carried in American bottoms from the Chincha Islands, the guano trade, there the freights were uniformly worth more than the cargo itself. To-day the vast amount of freights for the transportation of British coal amounts to more than the cargo. It is on freights that Great Britain is growing rich and drawing to herself the riches of the world. Yet we stand here haggling over the remission of a little bit of duty which is insignificant compared with the millions of freights we might have in our grasp if we gave any fair encouragement to our commerce.

June 17, 1868.

FREE BREAD AND FREE LUMBER.

In the first place, let me say that during the entire war, when we were seeking everything on the earth, and in the skies, and in the waters under the earth, out of which taxation could be wrung, it never entered into the conception of Congress to tax breadstuffs—never. During the most pressing exigencies of the terrible contest in which we were engaged, neither breadstuffs nor lumber ever became the subject of one penny of taxation. It was not because of the influence of the rich grain dealers at Chicago, or Toledo, or Milwaukee. It was because if anything be universal, breadstuffs are universal; for they constitute literally "the staff of life." If you impose on them a tax ever so small in amount it will be made a pretext by the very speculators of whom gentlemen talk for adding an appreciable amount to the cost of a barrel of flour. Now as to the article of lumber, I again remind the House that there never has been a tax upon this article. The gentleman from Ohio may talk of this question as he pleases; but I say that wherever the western frontiersman undertakes to make for himself a home, to till the soil, to carry on the business of life, he needs lumber for his cabin; he needs lumber for his fence; he needs lumber for his wagon or cart; he needs lumber for his plow; he needs lumber for almost every purpose in his daily life.

June 10, 1868.

HON. CHARLES J. DOHERTY.

A NAME which, borne by father and son, has been honorably before the Canadian public during a period of sixty years, carries with it the weight and influence which attach to a worthy heredity. "Like father like son" is a saying often more trite than true, but when, in October, 1891, Hon. Marcus Doherty, Judge of the Superior Court, gave up the position so worthily held, the nomination of his son to the vacant place on the Bench, awakened universal approval.

The elder Judge Doherty is a native of Ireland, and came to this country in 1835. His son—the subject of this sketch—was born in Montreal, May 11, 1855. He received his whole education in his native city, completing a course at St. Mary's College, and passing thence to McGill University, where he studied law, graduating in 1876, taking, jointly with M. Greenshields, Q.C., the Elizabeth Torrence gold medal. He was admitted to practice in 1877.

He took part in not a few important cases, and many will associate his name with the more or less celebrated causes which engaged attention during his career at the Bar. Prominent among them were:—the famous McNamee Libel case, in which he successfully defended Mr. J. P. Whelan; the sensational proceedings brought by Mr. Alfred Rose Lyman from the which Mr. Doherty acted as represented the *Post* in the it by the Montreal Amateur acted as counsel in the pro-against the Royal Commis-with the Statute Labour and displayed great ability in of the lawyers for the suit against the Toronto of his success, and the good showered upon him. In Queen's Counsel, and sub-Council of the Montreal

On the re-organization he was honored with the Civil Law, which he still

Mr. Doherty's keen and the solicitations of his enter the arena of political real Centre, being each time McShane. Of a large and thies have been ever with

affecting public welfare. He is an ardent Home Ruler, and his name is beloved by Irishmen on both sides of the water. For several years he was President of the Montreal Branch of the Irish National League, and in a measure identified himself with the movement.

True to the instinct which draws him to the people, Mr. Doherty has manifested a keen and sympathetic interest in the Labour Question.

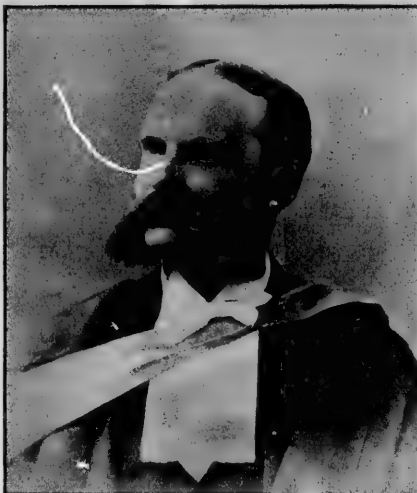
His duties and interests have been various; he was for several years president of the Junior Conservative Club; he has also been president of the Universal Literary Society; and vice-president of the Graduates' Society.

He was named in 1883 a member of the Royal Commission to investigate the workings of the Catholic and Protestant School Boards of the city of Montreal.

A biographical sketch of Judge Doherty is incomplete without a reference to his active participation in the events of 1885, the year of the Riel rebellion. He, at that time, held a commission of captain in the Sixty-fifth Battalion, and went with his regiment to the North West. Throughout the stormy weeks that followed he played his part with customary zeal and efficiency, and was in command of the garrison at Fort Saskatchewan until the withdrawal of the troops.

As a lawyer, Mr. Doherty's pre-eminence must be widely acknowledged. His style as a pleader was concise, vigorous and erudite, while his reasoning was sound and free from verbosity and sophistry.

He married, several years ago, a daughter of Mr. Edmund Bernard, Q.C., and has now two children.



Perry for the release of Longue Pointe Asylum, in counsel for Mr. Lyman; he libel suit brought against Athletic Association; he proceedings for prohibition, sion; and in connection Water Tax litigations he municipal law. He was one Society of Jesus in its libel *Mail*. Honors, in evidence will thereby evoked, were 1887 he was created a sequently a member of the Bar.

of the McGill Law School, appointment of Professor of holds.

interest in public affairs, friends twice led him to life as candidate for Mont-opposed by Hon. James kindly nature, his sym- the people in all questions

SIR JOSEPH HICKSON.

DURING the past thirty years, most wonderful progress has been made in the extension of railway facilities throughout Canada. The Canadian Pacific Railway connects the Atlantic with the Pacific, and is opening up boundless tracts of cultivable land that were formerly unexplored. The Grand Trunk Railway, "the pioneer railway of Canada," is extending its branch lines throughout Ontario, and connecting the settled districts with those that have been recently surveyed, thus providing fresh locations for settlement, and giving a great impetus to trade and commerce.

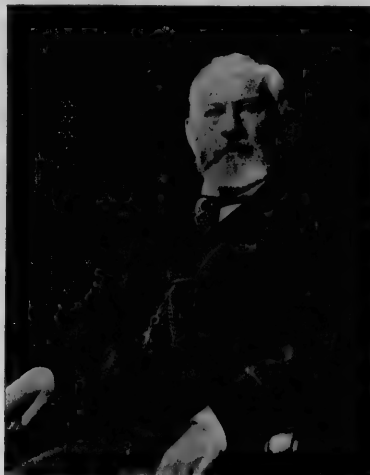
Among the many high officials who have spent the greater part of their lives in developing and strengthening the Grand Trunk system, Sir Joseph Hickson ranks among the first. He is an Englishman by birth, a native of Otterburn in Northumberland, where he was born in 1830. When very young, he was employed by a large carrying firm before the railway systems between England and Scotland were completed. He soon afterwards entered the service of the North Eastern Railway of England, where he gained the foundation of that knowledge which was destined to make him one of the most able and prominent railway men the world has ever produced. He subsequently filled an important position on the Maryport & Carlisle Railway, and then removed to Manchester with the Manchester, Sheffield. Here he gained rapidly the various details of the service, until at the end of the service, tending to the duties of the post, he attracted the attention of the president of the Grand who was so much struck that he offered him the position of Canadian line, which offer

Mr. Hickson came to has resided ever since. His practical working of railway management to the company, and his affairs led to his rapid secretary-treasurer, and, in Bridges as general-manager of his youthful ambition of the most triumphant result. His natural ability was augmenting industry and perseverance work prompted him to

His phenomenal success and rapid promotion afforded him many and great opportunities of showing his wonderful tact and judgment, and to display his unrivalled powers.

In addition to having the management of the Grand Trunk proper, he was either president or director of over twenty subordinate lines in which the Company had a controlling interest. The innumerable complications of all these conflicting interests were managed and harmonized by the masterful skill of this renowned railway magnate. Under his management the Company made rapid strides, and formed connections that were of the highest importance in securing many substantial trading benefits, one of the chief ones being the establishment of a direct line to Chicago, wholly under the control of the Grand Trunk. This master-stroke of policy was the means of securing the best paying portions of the western freight, and arranging for its transit in Canadian vessels across the Atlantic. During his seventeen years of management, the mileage of the road increased from 1,383 to 3,487 miles, with a corresponding increase in its rolling stock and facilities for passenger and freight transit. For his great services in connection with the railway and the consequent development of the country, he received the honor of knighthood in 1890, and the following year he retired from the elevated position he had won by his energy and ability on the Grand Trunk Railway.

He is a J. P., Lieut. Col. of the Militia, a member of the Board of Trade and the Corn Exchange, a director of the Merchants' Bank of Canada, the Montreal City & District Savings Bank, the Standard Life Assurance Co., the Royal Electric Co., the Montreal Safe Deposit Co., and a Trustee of the Guardian Life Assurance Co.



ALD. T. A. GROTHÉ.

CANADA, the infant country of the New World, is now running through the various phases of development which are characteristic of a new country. Its vast natural resources—mines, forests and seas—are being extensively worked; its unlimited agricultural area is being rapidly utilized and, in consequence, railways and canals are acting as pioneers for the establishment of cities and towns that will eventually teem with an immense population. This upward grading process to the present time has borne good fruit. Industry and commerce have rapidly increased, and Canada is gradually acquiring a place in the autonomy of nations. The cities of the Dominion are now able to hold their own in wealth and magnificence, and as a consequence the internal trade is on a corresponding scale. Public and social entertainments are now conducted on a grander scale, and the evidences of wealth are more universally shown. This is evinced specially by the ladies who show their taste and discrimination by displaying specimens of valuable and artistic jewelry. Among the Jewelers of Montreal who have contributed so much to increase and expand this particular trade, and to supply the demand for valuable jewelry of chaste and artistic design, the firm of T. A. Grothé hold a prominent position.

The country, up to a few years ago, had simply been flooded with cheap imitations from Great Britain, France and Germany, and get these inferior goods out-sold a very small intrinsic sign recommended them to masses. At the same time refined tastes and purity of be found in the country, and istic and costly gains of abroad. This importation by the enormous import posed. Since then, these

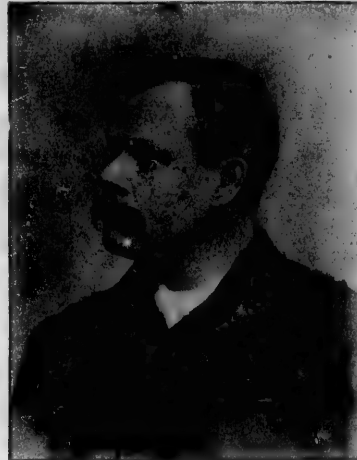
Mr. Grothé was born father was a skilled mechan- his son a sound elementary tained at the Christian Bro- rence Ward. He left school and went to learn the trade the instructions of his father, in terms of affectionate re- readily adapted himself to gained an intimate know- and of their peculiar quali- be transformed into the ele- of adornment which are so

workmanship and artistic taste very soon placed him in the front rank of his competitors. In 1877, he had gained such a position as to enable him to establish a wholesale jewelry store on Fortification lane, where he worked and distributed a considerable part of the jewelry that was used in the city and in the country. His business increased to such an extent that in 1886 he removed his factory to 95 St. Lawrence Street, where he took his brother, A. A. Grothé, into partnership, who, however, only remained with him three years.

Ald. Grothé is a fair sample of those men who by their energy, industry, thrift, and intelligence, in the course of time become wealthy, and acquire that position among their fellow-citizens that should be the aim of every workingman in this democratic country of ours, where honor is bestowed upon those to whom it is due, and where honesty, pluck, integrity and perseverance is always sure to be triumphant.

Mr. Grothé has been a hearty supporter of the various benevolent clubs founded in the city, and is an active officer of the St. Joseph, St. Pierre and the Artizans Societies, and during 1891-92 acted as president of the St. Jean-Baptiste Society. In 1892, he was nominated by the citizens of St. Jean-Baptiste Ward to represent them in the city council. Although suffering from illness at the time and unable to do the usual canvassing, he was triumphantly elected by a large majority, a proof of the high regard and esteem in which he is held.

In 1873, he married Miss Celina Rose, a union which has proved a truly happy one, having resulted in a family of thirteen children.



it was a difficult matter to of the market. They pos- value, but the style and de- the uncultivated taste of the the skilled artist with re- mechanism was hardly to nearly all the valuable, art- jewelry were imported from was necessarily accompanied duties that were then im- things have changed.

on 23rd January, 1853. His ic, who contrived to give education, which was ob- thers' School in the St. Law- at the early age of 12 years of a working jeweler under of whom he always spoke gard. The young jeweler his new surroundings, and ledge of the precious metals ties which enable them to gant and beautiful articles much prized. His skill in

ALD. R. WILSON SMITH.

THE rapid strides made by Canada during the last thirty years in the development of her industries and commerce has naturally generated a large number of financial undertakings, which have increased in a proportionate ratio. These matters are all closely assimilated with the numerous commercial enterprises that have sprung up all over the Dominion, and with the various companies that have been formed to develop the vast natural resources of our fields, forests, mines and seas. Many of these concerns have collapsed through the want of a proper organization, and the necessary experience requisite to ensure success. Capitalists, therefore, who desire to make sound investments, should be guided by men who have acquired a thorough knowledge of the business contemplated, and whose shrewd intelligence in financial matters would lead them to an assured success. This connection would obviate the disastrous results that have often attended the efforts of men who have relied upon their own individual capacity in estimating the value of the numerous schemes that have been floated by clever adventurers to secure fortunes for their dupes.

Among the many solid-headed business men in Montreal who are in touch with all the sound financial concerns of the country, and who are able to grasp the value of the minutest details, no one occupies a more prominent position and en- than Ald. R. Wilson Smith. rough insurance and finan- as one of the best autho- vestment. He is the pro- Insurance and Financial real, a journal which for deservedly occupied a high publications. His principal cial world is that of an in- he holds a conspicuous place very high order, which have and lucrative position.

The high esteem in by his brother journalists elected to the honorable Press Association for the ing his continuance of this the confidence of the mem- torol of the affairs of the As- isfaction. He is President urance Company, and his ization has proved eminently prominently associated with tutions, all of which receive his warmest support. His connection with the Board of Trade began in 1892, and his marked abilities as a financier were speedily recognized by the council of that important body. He was entrusted in January, 1893, to float the mortgage bonds of the Board of Trade to the amount of \$300,000. This operation he performed with signal success, obtaining the mortgage at 4½ per cent. of interest, the lowest rate of interest ever obtained for similar mortgage bonds in Canada.

Mr. Smith was chosen twice by acclamation to represent the constituents of the St. Lawrence Ward at the municipal elections, and has gained golden opinions by his manly uprightness and straightforward dealing in the city council.

He is closely allied with many of the benevolent institutions of the city, and is a Life Governor of the Montreal General Hospital and the Protestant Hospital for the Insane, and devotes a considerable portion of his time in the promotion of philanthropic endeavors. He is always ready to aid in any charitable work, which is performed without the slightest degree of ostentation.

Ald. Smith was born in Ireland in 1852, where he received his early education, and came to Canada in 1878. As one of the many representative Irishmen of this city he retains his patriotic love for the old land, while strenuously utilizing his energy and talent in promoting the interests and forwarding the progress of the country of his adoption. He is universally liked in the social world for his genial manners and uniform courtesy, and is a member of the St. James and City Clubs, where he is most popular.



joys a higher reputation. He is recognized as a thoc- ical expert, and is regarded rities on all matters of in- prietor and publisher of the Chronicle, issued in Mont- the last fifteen years has position among Canadian forte, however, in the finan- vestment broker, in which and has evinced talents of a secured for him an extensive

which Ald. Smith is held was shown by his being position of President of the Province of Quebec. Dur- responsible office he gained bers, and his energetic con- sociation gave general sat- of the Canada Accident In- connection with that organ- satisfactory. He is also several other kindred insti-

STRIKES:—THE RIGHT AND THE WRONG.

WITH AN APPENDIX ON BOARDS OF CONCILIATION.

By F. D. HUNTINGTON, S.T.D., LL.D., *Bishop of Central New York.*

AGREEMENT in a few general principles will simplify the discussion of the particular subject. These principles are supposed to be acknowledged as having the sanction of the science of morals, the Constitution and genius of the Republic, and the Christian religion.

1. In any contract or business relation between the wage-laborer and the wage-payer, the two parties meet on terms of complete equality in respect to the law, to natural common rights, to the claims of respect and courtesy, to all the obligations of fair and patient consideration.

2. This excludes, on the part of the wage-laborer, jealousy, suspicion, eye-service or sham work, under the influence of class-feeling or resentment. It excludes, on the part of the wage-payer, contempt, national or sectional or personal prejudice, all taking advantage from a sense of superior power or social standing, or from any traditional sentiment due to past social distinctions.

3. No transaction is righteous where the necessities, the weakness, the dependence of the laborer, are directly or indirectly made to reduce the price of his service below an equitable mark, or to delay payment. Moreover, magnanimity, a real and not an adventitious good-breeding, will make generous allowance, in mixed affairs or passionate excitements, for those who may be deprived of discipline, knowledge and high examples.

4. In cases of difference, however exasperating, a wise forecast will keep both parties in mind that every such struggle has effects far beyond the immediate issue, and that, in the present and prospective state of public feeling, any settlement brought about by sheer coercion is to be deprecated as leaving behind irritation instead of mutual good will, and the discontent of an unhealed wound instead of mutual confidence.

Obviously these propositions, mostly self-evident, are as applicable to corporations, or the officers and members of corporations, as to the individual capitalist or employer. At the beginning is a simple, ordinary bargain. It differs from most bargains in that it contemplates a continuous transaction subject to contingencies. The commodity that the laborer has to sell is his labor, with such skill and experience as may go with it.

A strike is a concerted suspension of work by wage-workers of either sex in the employ of wage-payers for an alleged non-fulfilment of a contract, or as a protest at the alleged imposition of new demands, or for the sake of obtaining some benefit declared to be deserved on account of new conditions in the line of industry pursued, or in the cost of living, or for the correction of personal offences against wage-workers, especially females, committed by the managers or their subordinates.

Taking into account the disturbances inevitably created by such a summary step, the damage to related branches of business, the risk of loss, temporary at least, to one or both of the parties, the uncertainty of the result, and the probable provocation of ill-temper and consequent alienation, the strike must be regarded as an evil—a measure to be resorted to only in the last extremity, when all other modes of remedy or satisfaction have first been tried.

The primary preventive of strikes is definiteness and particularly in the original agreement or contract between the employer and the employed. The specifications, without being exhaustive or very numerous, could easily be made to meet ordinary cases of difference and forestall a rupture. Whatever the expense in time or trouble, it would be far less than the damage of a break. It would be shared on both sides. It would, in a great number of instances, prevent the rising of dissatisfaction in the minds of the workmen,—dissatisfaction which, being fomented by sympathy and a brooding sense of injury, leads on to open agitation.

Inasmuch as disagreements may arise which cannot be decided by the terms of the contract, expediency requires, in the second place, a board of conciliation,* which would, of course, be also a board of arbitration. The contract should include a promise by both parties to abide by the award of the board. Both parties are, of course, equally bound, whether either party is composed of one person, or ten, or a thousand.

*Appendix A.

No strike can be justified on the ground of reduced wages where it can be proved by the board of arbitration, or otherwise, that the market value of the product of the industry is insufficient to sustain wages at the regular rate. The employer must show his books, the workman what it costs him to live.

Justice demands that, except in extreme necessity, the act which on either side dissolves the contract or suspends the work should not be sudden. The suddenness is a needless element in the injury. Unless there is a patent or actual outrage, notice ought to be given and an opportunity afforded for an amicable adjustment. Either party may apprehend that the other will take advantage of the notice to secure itself and damage the antagonist. This is one of the unavoidable liabilities in society and human affairs. We must abide by the operation of the supreme laws and take consequences, subjecting policy to absolute right. On mere "business principles" either party may cheat, over-reach, or outwit the other. There are, however, other "principles." God lives on; His judgment comes. But, meantime, obligations are mutual and they are equal. If a railway may discharge its hands without warning by the "blue envelope," the hands may discharge the railway in like manner. After reciprocal relations have become common relations, with a reciprocal interplay of fraternal feeling, then both have come under a higher and gracious law, which can be so administered as to bar nine difficulties out of ten. This has been distinctly illustrated in a recent contrast. The gentlemanly officer on one great railroad dealt so reasonably with the combined complainants in his employ as to avert disaster and keep their confidence. On another, a testy official contrived to get the censure of the better part of the community far and wide, and to make his name hated all along a line of five hundred miles. Whether the grievance is a change of old conditions or a refusal to grant new ones, impartial arbitration is assuredly a safe resort. It is practicable. It leaves both parties in a pacific mood, whereas a hard conquest of the weaker by the stronger leaves the weaker embittered and hostile; it promotes a reconciliation that is permanent; it is inexpensive; it ought to be recognized and established. The party that refuses it makes a *prima facie* confession of the weakness of its cause. In New Orleans, not long ago, the workmen employed in handling cotton made a formal demand on the cotton-press proprietors for an increase of wages of two cents a bale for compressing and one cent a bale for receiving. The cotton-press employers were slow to act and intimidated a refusal, which meant the tying up of the commerce of the port by a strike of both white and black labor. The matter was referred to a committee, and the demand of the laborers was fully conceded. The industry proceeds without interruption.

Serious and needless losses are suffered among workmen and their families by haste, indiscretion and assumption in exciting and ordering strikes where they are not warranted by sufficient cause. If organizations are needed to prevent this mischief, organization becomes an imperative duty. No rash indignation, no appeals to pride or class spirit, no false loyalty to an irresponsible society, will excuse a wanton waste of time and family comfort. Workingmen lose by it not only what they cannot afford to lose in their own welfare; they lose the respect and sympathy of the wiser part of the community standing ready to befriend them. Experience will satisfy them that a rash and causeless strike is a wicked cruelty—cruelty that must some time be checked by the lessons of suffering and by common sense.

That any number of men in this country have a right to combine, organize and act together for the lawful promotion of their convictions or their common interests ought by this time to be beyond dispute. There is something absurd in setting about proving what nothing but imprudence could deny. If a number of men may combine to raise or keep up the price of oil, wheat or sugar, then there may be a union to raise or keep up the price of labor. An organization of workmen for that purpose is far less likely to do mischief than are the manufacturers or trafficking monopolists who overtax the many for the aggrandizement of the few. It will be likely to have in it manlier men, better characters, a more disinterested public spirit. We have said "lawful promotion." That means that all violence, all interference with personal liberty, all compulsion, all obstruction of other men's lawful action, is forbidden. Yet while law must be obeyed, it remains true that law itself may be unequal. Money worshippers, who are used to denying that the common gifts of God* to the people belong to the people, are gradually educated to a partial and unjust legislation. Politicians, who have no scruples in damaging and obstructing one another's parties by all sorts of devices, are shocked when they hear, and sometimes when they only suspect, that labor men are doing the same thing. The game is bad for both of them. It takes time to convince unwilling minds, but time is on the side of the Almighty and Everlasting Father of all that live.

The law in some States forbids a strike where a cessation of labor would endanger life or liberty, or violently obstruct men's lawful pursuits. Such a law needs to be very definitely and precisely expressed, or it will be abused by a one-sided interpretation. Corporations, individuals, parties, are constantly obstructing one

*Appendix B.

another's business. It is incidental to a competitive system. The Knights of Labor have been charged with arbitrary dictation for restraining their members from taking employment below the established rates. It is forgotten that any instance of such work below the scale lowers the value of every workman's labor, reducing wages to a minimum, and defeating the very object for which the combination exists, membership in which, however, is voluntary. The railway, the factory, the tailors, the mining companies, fix their prices and contend against competition. The Knights fix their scale of wages and contend against competition. Public opinion will evidently demand of the Legislature a law prohibiting the outrageous violence of a squad of "detectives."

It appears plain that any concerted action or speech of operatives, needlessly and maliciously adverse to the character or true and legitimate interests of the employer employing them, is a valid reason for a discharge of such operatives, subject to the terms of the contract. No such reason can be found in a combination of the operatives, or any number of them, for general purposes or the furthering of general objects favorable to their class or calling. Membership in an association representing a social theory, or a plan of mutual support, without any hostile purpose toward any particular institution or enterprise, is no more a justification for discharging workmen than is membership of the officers of a railroad in a political club a justification for an abandonment by the workmen of their work.

If it should appear, therefore, that a great corporation is known to discharge any of its hands for belonging to a political labor organization, and for acting in it according to its lawful rules, and being embarrassed by the consequences retains others so long as they can be made use of to train or initiate raw hands to take their places and no longer, it must expect for a policy so despotic, so vindictive and so mean, the silent, if not spoken, condemnation of a right-minded community.

It has been said in behalf of a rigorous policy toward railroad operatives in a strike that they owe uninterrupted service, whatever their grievances, to the traveling public. In a sense such operatives, like men in most callings, are bound to regard the public convenience; but to urge this as a defence of severity in the company and its management is either superficial or sophistical. It is the railroad that is directly and comprehensively responsible to the public; the responsibility of the workmen is to the company.

By its charter, its immunities, its advertisements, its time-table, its connection with legislatures (the legislature of some States are generally believed to be controlled by railroads), the company is bound, at whatever cost, to provide a continuous and safe transportation for passengers and freight. Labor is its agent for fulfilling the contract. The laborers fulfil their duty by rendering a stipulated and faithful service to their employers. The inconveniences of a strike enter into the company's risks. The burden must rest where it belongs, and wherever the profits accrue.

It sounds well to say that labor cannot live without capital. In point of fact, taking capital in its technical scientific sense, there is a conceivable, and not impossible, industrial and social state where labor can live without capital independently and comfortably. It has done so, and may do so again. At any rate, capitalists know very well that without labor their capital would not in most cases have been created, and if created would speedily disappear.

A system in which men and women of the wage-earning class are subjected to the control and caprice of their paymasters is not one that consistent Americans or intelligent Christians can contemplate with complacency or can encourage. "In our courts," says Professor Walker, "a poor man has little hope of receiving justice when his interests conflict with those of powerful corporations. If it be questioned whether a power so arbitrary, so unequal, so dangerous, can look to Christianity for countenance, the answer need hardly be pronounced." In the General Triennial Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, held in New York, in October, 1889, the bishops unitedly declared, in a passage of their pastoral rebuking these injustices, that "it is a fallacy to look upon the labor of men, women and children as a commercial commodity to be bought and sold as an inanimate and irresponsible thing." "The manufacturing, the professional, the leading classes are as a rule concentrated in cities; their interests have for the most part been in common; they can easily combine; they have the press in their hands; they control the school, the college and the church; they are dominant in the caucus, the political convention, the national legislation." "Is this condition, which is becoming more marked by a sweeping tendency every year, a condition contemplated by the founders or at all consistent with the boasted aims of the Republic? Can it possibly be doubted or denied that it calls upon patriots and statesmen for a very prudent and patient consideration of discontent and disorder?"

We hear it offered as an excuse for a sharp policy on the part of capital that the working class are in no danger of depression, in fact that they rather need to be kept down by the strong hand. Is this true? By a recent report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, "one-third of all the persons engaged in

remunerative labor are unemployed at their principal occupation for about one-third of their working-time." The average annual wage of the operatives in ninety manufacturing establishments in New England, as shown by a professor of the Massachusetts State Agricultural College, was in 1888 \$4.41; of the proprietors, \$4.983. Two hundred and fifty thousand families control seventy-five to eighty per cent. of our national wealth, which seventy-five per cent. pays but twenty-seven per cent. of taxes for the support of the Government, while the owners of but a quarter of the property pay seventy-three per cent.

There are mines now worked in this country where the workers are brought into a condition of cruel servitude to the owners. Among other despotic hardships workmen and their families, enticed by the prospect of permanent employment, have bought houses on the lots of the owners under mortgage and made partial payments. Finding their privations increasing, driven well-nigh to starvation, they are yet held fast to the spot. They strike; the strike enrages the owners. One extortionate demand follows another. Respectful committees are refused a hearing. Remonstrances are received with scoffs. A superintendent is appointed who does his inhuman task with the relish of a barbarous headsmen. The necessities of life must be purchased at the "company store," selling at an arbitrary profit. Knights of Labor are picked out for special oppression or turned out. Promises made by the company are unscrupulously broken. Excuses are invented for grinding and subduing the restless laborer. Just payments of wages are kept back. Charges above the market price are made on coal. The bitterest antipathy is shown to Roman Catholics. Indignities are added to frauds, and insults to barbarities. Yet luxurious capitalists, with every comfort supplied, want as unknown to them as pity, men and women housed and clothed and fed to abundance by riches that they have never earned, sneer, sometimes not without curses, at "those common working people," their emaciated and pale brothers and sisters in the one family of God. Some of them are professors of the religion of the Carpenter of Galilee, the Saviour of the world, the Lord of our race, Who never pronounced a malediction on the poor or a blessing on the rich.

Good breeding at least will remember that in almost all cases there are advantages on the side of the employer. The men and women employed are apt to be closely pressed, living near to the edge of destitution. They cannot live long without work; their circumstances are narrow; their prospects are uncertain; their children perhaps are in danger of physical or mental starvation; they cannot pick and choose between situations; they must take what comes. The owners of the corporations can better afford to lose or be hindered than the operatives. A humane person having wealth or making money fast will be moved to generous allowances by contrasting in all the appointments of his house, the resources of his taste, the safeguards of his family, with the bare surroundings and bleak outlook of most of those whose wages he makes as small as he can.*

On the other hand, the disabilities of ignorance are becoming less and less. Not a few of the "hands" in the shops would be found, on a competitive examination, to have learned in their odd bits of time a knowledge of things desirable to be known quite equal in accuracy and extent to that of their employers, once called their "masters." Indeed, it is this very quickening and spread of intelligence which intensifies the suffering and deepens the tragic problem of the laborer's condition. We are told continually that the toilsomen are as well off as their predecessors in the same grade. They might be as well off but for their brains, books, newspapers, reading and debating clubs, the general store of knowledge and awakening of ideas in civilized nations. They are finding out what they have lost, what they expect to have that they have not, what their fair share is in the fruits of their labor. Factory hands, workers in mines, mechanics, seamstresses, are not to blame for living in the nineteenth century. Their repressed aspirations are born of the very social state which our enterprise, Declaration of Independence and public schools have brought about. You cannot boast of the diffusion of light and scold at men for opening their eyes in the same breath. As with knowledge so with other traits of true manhood. These are not the exclusive growth of parlors and fashionable club-houses, or a successful brokerage. And along with the brain power comes the peril. According to the last report of the New York Commissioner of Labor Statistics, there have been in this State within five years 9,384 strikes, with 338,900 strikers. They are too many. But these men and women are sane; they have common sense, some of them more than common; they are struggling to live; a majority would not so hazard their living without a cause. Wise, thoughtful, patriotic, large-minded captains and guides of industry will take these things into a calm account. The whole nature is degraded and belittled if we forget that the worst evil among the poor is not their poverty, as the best good among the rich is not their riches. It is high time for the Church to preach, and mankind to believe, that a heavenly order of society is not to be postponed to a future world, but is to be set up here on the earth, in that faith which proclaims, "One is your Master, even Christ, and all ye are brethren."

*Appendix C.

APPENDIX A.

BOARDS OF CONCILIATION.

It is surprising that we, in this country, have as yet made so little use of boards of conciliation. In England they are found in many of the large trades, and, as a direct result, in many businesses strikes have become a thing of the past, and both the wage-workers and the employers are outspoken in their expressions of thankfulness for the more intelligent relations and better feelings that have ensued. Mr. Henry Crompton, in his little book, "Industrial Conciliation," (Henry S. King & Co., London, 1876), attributes the invention of the modern system of conciliation to Mr. Mundella, M.P., and gives the year 1860 as the date of the first board,—it was formed in the hosiery trade. Of course, this statement will be understood to imply that a *system of conciliation* is regarded as something distinct from *arbitration*. Mr. Crompton thus contrasts them:—

"Arbitration is not the same as conciliation, but may be used when conciliation has failed, or where there has been no attempt at conciliation. Arbitration is 'after the fact,' and implies that a cause of difference and a dispute have arisen. By arbitration this may be settled, a compromise effected, and war averted; and that whether the dispute relates to past arrangements, as to what are the terms of an existing contract, the just application of those terms to a new state of things, or whether the difficulty is to agree upon future prices or conditions of labor. Desirable as this obviously is, conciliation aims at something higher,—at doing before the fact that which arbitration accomplishes after. It seeks to prevent and remove the causes of dispute before they arise, to adjust differences and claims before they become disputes. Arbitration is limited to the larger and more general questions of industry, those of wages or prices, or those concerning a whole trade. A board of conciliation deals with matters that could not be arbitrated upon; promoting the growth of beneficial customs; interfering in the smaller details of industrial life; modifying or removing some of the worst evils incidental to modern industry, such, for example, as the truck system, or the wrongs which workmen suffer at the hands of middlemen and overseers. . . . The very difficulties for which arbitration is a remedy are best got rid of by the simplest kind of conciliation in the earliest stages of the difficulty. There may be arbitration without conciliation, but the converse is not true; at least, there cannot be systematic conciliation without some form of arbitration in the background, to be used as a last resort instead of a strike or lock-out.

. . . . A conciliation board has standing committees, regular times of meeting, and is in fact a machinery for accommodating the conflicting interests of employers and employed" (pp. 16-18).

Of course, for the information of a board of conciliation it is necessary that the wage-workers and (unless the board is confined but to one shop in the trade) the employers should be organized, in order that accredited representation from both sides should find place on the board. Organization and combination is, however, the order of the day, and when it is understood to be essential to the highest interests of the wage-payer and the wage-receiver, suspicion and jealousy on this score may be expected to disappear.

Boards of conciliation do not usually reach their conclusions by the somewhat crude method of a show of hands. The triumph of a numerical majority is too much like the supremacy of mere force. Mr. Crompton says:—

"The proceedings of the board are very informal, not like a court, but the masters and men sit round a table, the men interspersed with the masters. Each side has its secretary. The proceedings are without ceremony, and the matter is settled by what the men call a 'long jaw' discussion and explanation of views, in which the men convince the masters as often as the masters the men. Of course this does not mean that every member of the board is always convinced, though it seems that even this is very often the case, but when they are not they are content to compromise. . . . It is in fact conciliation, and is far better than the decision of a court or of an umpire. The 'long jaw' ending in agreement, may take a longer time, but is the true practical way out of the difficulty" (pp. 37, 38).

Mr. Mundella, in 1868, after eight year's experience on the board, thus speaks on this point:—

"When we came to make our rules it was agreed that the chairman should be elected by the meeting, and should have a vote, and a casting vote when necessary. I was chosen chairman in the first instance, and I have been the chairman ever since. I have a casting vote, and twice that casting vote has got us into trouble, and for the last four years it has been resolved that we would not vote at all. Even when a working man was convinced, or a master convinced, he did not like acting against his own order; and in some instances we had secessions in consequence of that; so we said, 'Do not let us vote again, let us try if we can agree; and we did agree' (pp. 36, 37).

It would be pleasant to go on with this description, to state the frequency of meetings (Mr. Mundella's board met once in three months, but could be called together oftener), the value of committees of inquiry, the

duties of referee, and to give illustrations of successful boards and the rules of some of those now in practical operation. But for this there is no space. One single example may be given from one of the few boards of conciliation in this country.

The window-glass makers are organized as Local Assembly 300 of the Knights of Labor, with a preceptory in each factory throughout the country. The employers are organized as The Window Glass Manufacturers' Association. The board, which was formed in 1880, consists of three representatives from either side. The board draws up a scale of prices, which runs from July 1 to July 1. In the spring of 1882, the price of window-glass rose rapidly. The firms were making "big money." The men grew restive and proposed demanding a larger share in the profits, with the threat of a strike to back it up. The companies would have increased their wages twenty per cent., rather than have their men go out. But, at the meeting of the men, a few of the leaders rose and appealed to them to stand by their agreement, pointing out to them that they had proposed the principle of conciliation and were bound to be faithful to it. Justice won the day. The men worked by the scale agreed upon until the end of the year. By that time prices had fallen, and the next year's scale showed but little advance.

But now for the sequel. Two years later, in the Spring of 1884, the price of window-glass fell. The profits of the companies became less and less, finally they were working at a loss; then some of the gentlemen-managers met and declared, "We cannot stand this strain; it threatens bankruptcy; the men must take lower wages." But, again, a few men, not the richest of those present, rose and said with intense earnestness, "Gentlemen, you have no right to make any such request. The men had you in their power two years ago; they allowed you to pocket your large profits without even asking a share in them for themselves. You must act as honorably by them as they have by you. Mortgage your houses if necessary, but pay every man his stipulated wages up to the day fixed." And they did.

Now, may we not say that both those sets of men had passed through a moral education in mutual trust, in faithfulness to principle, in loyalty to pledged word?

And is not this the training which the business world needs to-day? Do not any hopes for the future depend upon men gaining it? Whoever you may be who now reads these pages, it can hardly be that you do not share at least in the expectancy of coming economic change. It may be that you long for that change,—pray for it. On the other hand it may be that you find the present state of things highly agreeable and would gladly see it continue. But you know that it will *not* continue. Perhaps the very consciousness of its uncertainty is driving you to a fiercer struggle, a crueler competition, while you still hold the privileges and opportunities that you feel as an exclusive possession, are slipping from your grasp. But why not face the future? Better still, why not prepare to meet it, not merely with one's own selfish interests in view, but for humanity, for God? It is folly to believe that, in a land where men are politically free, industrial slavery can long remain; that men who are learning their equality at the polls will continue in the relations of the Old Dominion as bosses and hands. In the coming age those who labor, whether with hands or brains, will be fellow-workmen in the ennobling effort to produce all that is needed to supply human wants, to enlarge and widen human lives. Why, then, should not employers and employees meet together and frankly acknowledge that our present conditions are wrong and unjust; why should they not, while striving together to remove that injustice, treat each other with confidence and respect, why should they not, while bearing the privations and hardships of the present (hardships that often press more heavily upon the employer than on his men), learn to understand each other, as they must do in that better state to which they both aspire. Preachers have reiterated with painful monotony the truth that this world is a preparation for Heaven; is there not a more immediate lesson to be learnt, that this age is to be made the training-ground for the next? Boards of conciliation may be the practice-field where the virtues that are to conquer the battles that yet await humanity may be drilled and toughened.

It is not with any implied condemnation of employers, as though they were exclusively responsible for the wrongs of the past or the present, but as recognizing the splendid opportunity that now awaits them that we quote these last sentences of Mr. Crompton's work:—

"This book has been written with the sole object and hope of helping this great cause on. Each effort upon the onward march has its effect. It is by our united and associated efforts that our progress is assured, and I have sought only to bring to others the 'lamps of invention, and not the firebrands of contradiction.' To me it seems difficult to point to any set of men in history, certainly to none in modern history, on whom a greater and more important duty rested, than at the present moment devolves upon the English capitalists. They have to solve the industrial problem of the world, to discover the truths on which it must depend, and, putting aside the preconceived notions and prejudices of the past, to urge forward the final industrial and

social re-organization towards which we are now moving. There cannot be a nobler or more sacred work for men to do."

APPENDIX B.

"THE COMMON GIFTS OF GOD."

What are these "common gifts?" Are they not the air, the sunshine and the rain? Who would deny that these are the gifts of God to all His children, that they are the expression of His impartial love? But what if God had given these alone, could *man* have enjoyed them—do they not require a further bounty? To be blessed by the air, the sunshine, the rain, man by his very nature must first have footing on the *earth*. Raise him but a few miles above it and the sun will not warm him, the atmosphere will be too rarified to fill his lungs, the clouds will float *below* him, and not one drop will moisten his parched lips. Nor can man separated from the land enjoy the blessings that God has bestowed upon him in sun, air and rain. The ocean may be man's highway; it is not his dwelling-place. No matter how the light may shine, the winds blow or the showers descend upon the seas, man can garner no sheaves from those restless furrows, weave no garments from that fleecy foam. Unless the land be also one of the common gifts of God to His children, His other gifts become of no possible avail. We have denied that truth. We have treated land *not* as a *common gift* but as *private property*; we have subjected it to the same laws that govern the creations of man's hand and brain. Because an individual may have just ownership in what he has made, we have, in our statutes, declared that he could have just ownership in that which God has made, and made for all, not for a few. This falsehood wrought but little harm in the early days of our sparsely-settled colonies, when the supply of land seemed limitless, and access to it was practically free. To-day, in our highly-organized civilization, with every acre in most of our Eastern States in private hands, with land in great cities reaching a value of \$5,000,000 an acre, with one family in our great metropolis drawing rent from as many lots as would reach the whole length of Broadway, with 93 per cent. of the dwellers in New York mere tenants, the denial of the simple truth concerning the common gifts of God is producing manifold injustice and boundless inequalities that are iniquities as well. Thus the real underlying cause of the industrial war between laborers and capitalists is the narrowing down and restricting of individual effort and healthful competition by a "partial and unjust legislation." Men are shut out from the sources of production which God has so richly provided, and thus a brutal struggle ensues, like that of the Black Hole in Calcutta, for such advantages as the strong can secure by thrusting the weak to the wall. Strikes become a struggle in the dark, each man dealing his blows blindly at his fellow, because neither sees the real oppressor, the monopoly of God's gifts, that is rapidly crushing both employer and employed in its relentless grasp.

APPENDIX C.

"But, then, good society has its claret and its velvet carpets, its dinner engagements six weeks deep, its opera and its fancy ball-rooms; rides off its ennui on thorough-bred horses, lounges at the club, has to keep clear of crinoline-vortices, gets its science done by Faraday, and its religion by the superior clergy, who are to be met in the best houses; how should it have time for belief and emphasis? But good society, floated on gossamer wings of light irony, is of very expensive production, requiring nothing less than a wide and arduous national life condensed in unfragrant deafening factories, cramping itself in mines, sweating at furnaces, grinding, hammering, weaving under more or less oppression of carbonic acid, or else spread over sheep-walks, and scattered in lonely houses and tents on the clayey or chalky corn-lands, where the rainy days look dreary. This wide national life is based entirely on emphasis—the emphasis of want, which urges it into all the activities necessary for the maintenance of good society and light irony; it spends its heavy years often in a chill, uncarpeted fashion, amid family discord unsoftened by long corridors. Under such circumstances there are many among its myriad of souls who have absolutely needed an emphatic belief. Life in this unpleasurable shape demands some solution, even to unspeculative minds."—GEORGE ELIOT, "*Mill on the Floss*," Book 4, Chapter 3.

ALD. PETER LYALL.

PROMINENT among the astute, canny Scotchmen who have acquired a well-deserved competence in this country of ours, Mr. Peter Lyall ranks among the first. His indefatigable industry, shrewd business intelligence, combined with a natural talent for hitting the right nail on the head, has enabled him to embrace opportunities which were apparently enveloped in obscurity, and to take advantage of the various means which led him on to fortune.

He was born at Caithness, in Scotland, in the year 1841, and was very early put to work to learn the art of a stone mason and builder, and always performed his duties to the entire satisfaction of his employers. He acquired considerable experience in his native land, and his ability, industry and untiring energy caused his recognition as an able, conscientious and straightforward workman. Thinking that a new country would afford greater scope for his talents, he came to Canada in 1869 and settled in Montreal, where he started in business as a builder and contractor. This beginning was on a very small scale, but it gradually expanded to its present enormous dimensions. The pre-eminence of Montreal for the architectural beauty and structural solidity of its palatial buildings is now universally recognized, and no firm has contributed more towards this consummation than this old

Among the numerous by him are: the Royal Vic-
surance; New York Life;
Donald's Engineering Build-
Mills; and the Montreal
Valleyfield; besides innu-
fices of the city.

The reputation gained substantial work is second

The original workshops Bishop Street, but they were premises on King Street, needed to meet the increase from two to three hundred in the various processes kinds of stone for the number in course of erection. This on King Street was purchased and retained as his own; the firm was continued until 1893, when he admitted with him under the style of

Mr. Lyall has not only

in the welfare of his own workmen, but he is regarded by the mechanics and artisans of Montreal as one of their staunchest champions, and he has devoted considerable time and expense on their behalf. Every measure tending to be beneficial to the laboring classes is sure to have his warmest support, and any urgent case of distress is always promptly relieved.

One of his chief characteristic features is readiness to advise and assist young men who are commencing the battle of life, and are struggling to secure a foothold in the race.

He is the sole proprietor of the firm of Francis Hyde & Co., dealers in fire-brick, clay, lime plaster, etc., and also of the Wm. Sclater Asbestos Co. The firm are agents for John Gray & Co., of Glasgow, steam and hand power cranes, and for the Corncockle red sandstone quarries of Dumfries, Scotland, a stone justly celebrated for its beauty and strength.

Mr. Lyall is an enthusiastic curler and a strong supporter of the St. Andrew and other charitable institutions, and is a prominent director of the Montreal Exposition Co.; the Laprairie Pressed Brick & Terra Cotta Co.; the Montreal Quarry Co.; and the Protestant Hospital for the Insane.

In 1894, he was elected Alderman for St. Antoine Ward, and his public life is justly esteemed for its perfect disinterestedness and unswerving integrity which even the smut of civic politics has failed to tarnish.

He has filled the important position of Acting-Mayor with dignity and impartiality, and is always on the alert to oppose abuse and extravagance



established and reliable firm. splendid buildings erected toria Hospital; Royal In-Sun Life; Imperial; McInings; the St. Henri Cotton Cotton Company's Mills at merable stately private edi-

by the firm for sound solid, to none in the Dominion. and stone yards were on removed to more extensive as greater facilities were ing requirements. Here men are constantly engaged of preparing the different merous buildings which are valuable property fronting chased by Mr. Lyall, and private property. The busi-ducted by him personally his sons into partnership Pete: Lyall & Sons.

shown the deepest interest

JOSEPH OCTAVE VILLENEUVE.

It is permitted to few men to achieve in their own town so high a reputation, and a popularity so wide spread as that enjoyed by Mr. Joseph Octave Villeneuve. The ancient and oft-quoted saying, "a prophet has no honor in his own country," has not been exemplified in his career, which furnishes a gratifying illustration of the honour and esteem to be won from his fellows by a public-spirited and disinterested citizen.

A native Canadian, Mr. Villeneuve was born March 4, 1837, at Ste. Anne des Plaines, Terrebonne, Que., and came to Montreal at an early age, receiving his education at the Commercial School, and commencing his business life in 1853 in connection with the dry goods trade. His fortunes have been altogether associated with the prosperity and progress of Montreal, and he cherishes for the city in which his life has been spent, a profoundly loyal sentiment.

In 1863, he started a grocery and general business at Mile End, and subsequently founded there the wholesale house which bears his name, and which so rapidly extended its trade year by year, until it is, to-day, one of the largest concerns in Montreal, and undoubtedly one of the highest standing. Mr. Villeneuve is extensively engaged in the lumber business which forms a very important branch of the trade done by the firm. The large saw mills at St.

In all his business transactions, lofty integrity, strict sense of natural kindness of disposition. In recounting the incidents of his life, it never becomes necessary to apologize for acts not in accordance with the professed principles of the business men of the city.

With such endowments that Mr. Villeneuve should, front, and, in 1867, he was elected Mayor of St. Jean Baptiste, eighteen years previous to the City of Montreal in represented St. Jean Baptiste for eight years, during which time Villeneuve came to mind with honourable distinction which did not fail to 1894, he was elected Mayor of Montreal, making a record of municipal life. His extensive and sound practical procedure has enabled him to control the council with that ease and dignity which should characterize the civic chair.

Although it is as a member of the Council and Mayor of Montreal, that Mr. Villeneuve is best known and endeared to the public, his career has embraced opportunities of a wider usefulness. He was in 1886 elected to the Legislative Assembly as representative for Hochelaga County, and re-elected in 1890 and 1892. He is a conservative in politics. The confidence and esteem of his fellow-citizens has led Mr. Villeneuve to occupy many positions of importance and honour. He is a director of Jacques-Cartier Bank, and of the Dominion Cotton Mills; he is a Harbour Commissioner; he has been for very many years a member of the Board of Trade. The able and active assistance rendered by Mayor Villeneuve, during the winter just passed, to those suffering from the stress of the times, will not soon be forgotten. The "Trades and Labour Council," which represents the interests of the working classes in Montreal and vicinity, can testify to the zealous and painstaking efforts put forth by him on behalf of the objects of this organization. His heart is with the people, and the best work of his life has been in their service.

One of whom so much can be truthfully alleged must be admitted to be a remarkable man, one in every way fitted to be an ornament to the prominent position which he occupies as chief magistrate of the Canadian metropolis.

Mr. Villeneuve married, in 1861, Miss Susan Annie Walker, of Sorel.



Jerome are owned by them. actions, Mr. Villeneuve's of justice, as well as his nation, came into prominent positions and phases of his life. It was a matter of course sooner or later, come to the elected Mayor of the Municipality which office he held for the annexation of the village of 1885. After that date he was elected Ward in the City Council, which time the name of Albe associated in the public mind, and a wise discrimination awakened appreciation. In Montreal, which position long record of thirty years experience in civic affairs, his practical knowledge of parliamentary procedure should characterize

THE MONTREAL STREET RAILWAY.

THE efforts of the Montreal Street Railway Company to give its patrons a means of conveyance that will ensure speed and comfort have at last been crowned with success. The numerous obstacles that have confronted the Company have been steadily overcome, and now they can point with pride to a rapid and continuous service on all its routes.

Like all large corporations, it has still to suffer a certain amount of abuse, but the trifling inconveniences which at present exist are being carefully considered and arrangements made to counteract them. From the ability and energy displayed by the officials of the Company, there is no doubt but that these difficulties will soon be relegated to the past.

The Company have determined that the service of the street system in Montreal, the great metropolis of the Dominion, shall be second to none on the continent, and judging from the great progress and development of the electric system the last two years, this grand result will certainly be attained.

The following brief account of the operations of the Company will doubtless be read with interest.

On the 18th September, 1861, the first ground was broken to afford the city a street car line, and on the 26th November following, the initial trip was taken on the new track. Primitive, indeed, were the methods then employed in comparison with the splendid equipments now in use. From November, 1861, until the year 1892, the horse-car system prevailed, when the City Council decided to adopt the superior advantages of electric traction. In May, 1892, the Council called for tenders, and in July the Montreal Street Railway Co. was awarded the franchise for thirty years, to operate cars by electric power in the streets of the city. This privilege was only granted after severe competition from rival companies, and immediately after the agreements were signed, the Company proceeded to reconstruct and equip their lines for the introduction of the electric cars. On its part, the Company agreed to pay the city annually the sum of 4 per cent. on its receipts up to \$1,000,000, with a *pro rata* increase up to 15 per cent. on all amounts above \$3,000,000. The Company further agreed to fix the price of tickets at the following rates:—6 for 25 cents, 25 for \$1, and to school children 10 for 25 cents, single fares to be five cents, and transfer tickets on all routes. In addition, workmen are supplied with 8 tickets for 25 cents, to be used only between the hours of six and eight a.m. and five and seven p.m. Another condition was, that if it were found impossible to operate the cars in winter, the Company should supply sleighs instead. During the severity of the very first winter after receiving the franchise, the Company demonstrated most conclusively that the electric cars could be successfully run. This ticket arrangement may be regarded as eminently satisfactory when compared with other cities. Philadelphia, for instance, neither sells tickets nor grants transfers, while New York, Boston, Port Huron, Detroit and others sell no tickets and the transfers are limited.

The peculiar local conditions in respect to the situation of Montreal have demanded an extraordinary display of engineering skill with a corresponding amount of mechanical work.

The city is situated at the foot of Mount Royal, with a river front of about 8 miles in length and an average width of a mile and a half. The transverse streets from the mountain to the river are built on a succession of terraces, some of which have very steep grades.

The difficulties of operating the cars under these conditions are enhanced by the heavy snowfalls in winter, and the success of the Company in overcoming these obstacles reflects much credit upon its management. In anticipation of a severe snowstorm, the officials have a large force of men in readiness, and by a judicious use of the electric snow sweepers the evils of the storm are averted and the cars are only temporarily delayed. Although the tracks are well swept and cleared of snow, there is another serious obstacle to transportation which causes much delay and inconvenience. This is the ice which settles on the rails and prevents the wheels from taking a proper grip, especially when ascending a grade. Various devices are adopted to overcome this difficulty, which will probably soon be surmounted.

The Company have gone to immense expense in constructing buildings and providing the necessary equipment. The appliances and apparatus are from the latest scientific designs and are composed of the very best material. The newest and most approved inventions have been adopted, and the details are carried out by competent electricians.

The power house on William Street has a frontage of 207 ft. and a depth of 237 ft., and is divided into two parts, one for the boilers, the other for the engines and dynamos. It is about a mile from the centre of the system and convenient to the coal yards, as well as to the Lachine Canal, whence water for condensing is obtained.

The boiler room contains sixteen boilers of the double-flue Lancashire type made by Daniel Adamson, of Manchester, England. The boilers have solid welded flues, jointed together by patent expansion joints.

They are rated at 300 h.p. each, with a working pressure of 125 pounds. Each one is fitted with a dead load safety valve, a 6 in. steam nozzle, a combined low water alarm and safety valve, and a Government pop valve on the cover of the manhole. They are arranged in two batteries, and the gases from each furnace pass through the flues of its boiler, then return under the boiler and go back along the sides of the main flue. The gases have a temperature of about 450 degrees, which heat the feed water to about 250 to 300 degrees. The draft is regulated by two Locke automatic damping regulators. Four Northey pumps supply the feed water through duplicate pipes. The steam pipes are in duplicate, and are made of solid welded tubes with riveted cast-steel flanges. On the floor in front of each boiler is a door opening into a chute, by which the ashes are conveyed to pits on the floor below, which is level with the street. The consumption of fuel per electrical horse-power is very satisfactory. The average is about 2.75 pounds of coal for each electrical horse-power. This low consumption is no doubt due to the two Green economizers which are in use. The chimney, which is 190 ft. high above the fire grate, is one of the highest in the City. The foundations are 42 ft. square, and the circular cone has a diameter of 9 ft.

The equipment of the engine room consists of 6 cross-compound condensing engines, made by Laurie, of Montreal, and are rated at 800 h.p. each. The cylinders have a diameter of 24 in. and 48 in., with a stroke of 4 ft. The fly-wheels of 42 tons each have a diameter of 22 ft., giving a perpetual velocity of 4900 ft. at 70 revolutions a minute. Each engine is equipped with governors of the Porter type and all the latest modern appliances to secure speed and safety. The dynamos are arranged opposite the engines, and consist of twelve 80 Edison generators of 200 k.w. capacity each, and six multipolar generators of 300 k.w. capacity each, all built by the Canadian General Electric Co. The engine room is lit at night by 200 incandescent lamps. The switchboard is constructed of terra-cotta lumber cemented with Adamantine plaster. It is 62 ft. long, 11 ft. high, and 9 in. thick. The complicated apparatus comprises the latest and most ingenious inventions. The system for inter-communication between the switchboard and the engines was manufactured and installed by C. W. Henderson, of Montreal.

The trolley wire is No. 10, B. & S. gauge, and is supported by "West End" hangers, with mechanical clip. The span wire is No. 9, B. & S. three-ply galvanized iron wire, secured to the poles by Brooklyn strain insulators. The guard wires are also of No. 9 galvanized iron wire, and the feeders are No. 0000 copper wire and are both solid and stranded.

The rolling stock consists of 180 motor-cars and 95 trailers, nearly all of Canadian manufacture. The cars are equipped with fenders, and in winter are fitted with vestibules and heated by stoves. In addition to the above are 9 snow sweepers, of which 3 were made in the Company's own shops and fitted with motors of the Company's own manufacture.

The rails used on the tracks are of the very best English manufacture, and have proved admirably adapted for the purpose. The total length of rails at present in use in the City is 74½ miles, but considerable extensions are being projected.

The financial position of the Company is on a very sound basis, and the stock is quoted at 170. The capital stock of the Company is \$3,000,000, with a bonded indebtedness of \$973,333. The net earnings for the year ending September 30th, 1894, were \$258,422, an increase of nearly 64 per cent. over the previous year, out of which were paid two dividends of 4 per cent., and \$37,354 added to the surplus.

In 1892 the number of passengers carried was 11,631,386, and in 1894 the number was 20,559,013, which shows that the traffic has nearly doubled the last two years since the introduction of the trolley system. The number of persons employed by the Company is over 1000. The officers are L. J. Forget, president; G. C. Cunningham, manager and chief engineer; E. Lusher, secretary and treasurer; J. F. Hill, comptroller; R. C. Brown, electrical engineer, and D. McDonald, superintendent. Messrs. K. W. Blackwell and Jas. Ross, together with the president and manager, form the Board of Directors.

The above is a brief sketch of the history and operations of the Montreal Street Railway Company.

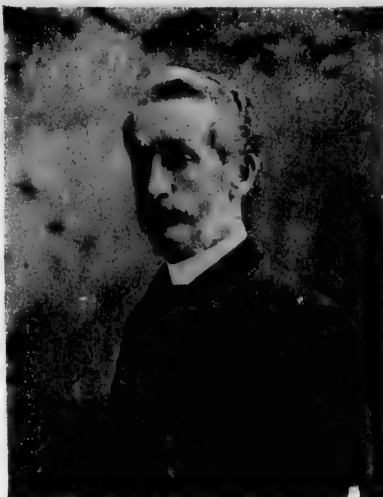
In spite of the most determined opposition, the Company has retained its position and has proved itself equal to the herculean task before it. The scientific knowledge, energy and enterprise displayed by the officials has provided a magnificent equipment of the most approved electrical appliances, the routes have been rapidly increased, and a continuous service of cars has been supplied, combining comfort and speed, suitable for the public requirements.

The officers have all shown a keen desire to satisfy all classes of their patrons, and every effort is being made to make the service thoroughly satisfactory.

JONATHAN HODGSON.

A BOOK of illustrations containing the history and photographs of the prominent merchants of Montreal would be very incomplete without containing that of Mr. Jonathan Hodgson. His deservedly high reputation in the commercial world is second to none among the mercantile community. Honesty and straight-dealing have always been the watch words of the eminent firm of which he is the senior partner.

Mr. Hodgson was born of English parents in the town of Clintonville, New York State, in 1827. His parents, who originally came to Canada in 1818, had gone to the States, but returned to this country in 1834 and settled in Lacolle, P.Q., where his father had purchased a farm which he successfully cultivated. Here Mr. Hodgson was brought up and received the best elementary education that the district then afforded. When comparatively young, he commenced his commercial career by acting as clerk to John Steel, a general merchant of Napierville, Quebec. He remained in this capacity for a period of five years, when his ambition prompted him to remove to Montreal in 1850, where he entered the firm of William Moody, wholesale dry goods and small wares merchant. Here he learned the many incidental details connected with the business, and his industry, energy and ability were much appreciated by his employer. In 1857, he laid the foundation of his present extensive business, in conjunction with Mr. J. Foulds, under son, wholesale dry goods dealer, and from that date his career has been one of uninterrupted and was not obtained without details, indefatigable in superior business talents. business in 1870, when Mr. partner of the firm, which when other partners were ly gained the confidence of was extended in every con- transactions all over the and German dry goods and sively imported and quickly opment of the firm is almost phenomenal prosperity. A are engaged to traverse even tricts, and the business done acknowledged to be one o this continent, and its man- portant branch of industry. the oldest members of the joined that body thirty-five



Mr. Hodgson is one of Board of Trade, having years ago. He has always been an active participant in its deliberations, and has actively served on the council and its various committees. He is a prominent member of the Montreal Dry Goods Association, and has been selected by that body on several occasions as a representative delegate to interview the government at Ottawa on matters pertaining to the interests of the Association. He is a director of the Merchants Bank of Canada, of the Merchants Manufacturing Co., the Almonte Knitting Co., and the Alliance Insurance Co. Although not wishing to become a candidate for parliamentary honors, he has always been a consistent liberal and has actively supported the measures of his party, the beneficial results of which he is firmly convinced. His thorough knowledge of mercantile matters has induced him to believe absolutely in the benefits that are anticipated to be derived from the introduction of the liberal proposition of a tariff for revenue only. This measure is firmly planted in his mind as conducive to the best interests of the country, and his superior acquaintance with the alleged deficiencies of the present system has justly entitled his opinions to be received with the respect they deserve. He is regarded as a thorough exponent of the English school of liberalism.

He takes a prominent part and shows an active interest in all the financial and commercial concerns to which he is attached, and also finds time to render valuable aid and advice to many of the charitable and benevolent societies that flourish in the city. The numerous employees have a great regard for the head of the firm, who invariably treats them with uniform courtesy and kindness, and is ever ready to advance their interests.

MODERN POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ADAM SMITH, LL.D., F.R.S., has been properly called the father of Modern Political Economy. His arguments have often been repeated, but we will give a few of them :

OF RESTRAINTS UPON THE IMPORTATION FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES OF SUCH GOODS
AS CAN BE PRODUCED AT HOME.

By restraining, either by high duties, or by absolute prohibitions, the importation of such goods from foreign countries as can be produced at home, the monopoly of the home market is more or less secured to the domestic industry employed in producing them. Thus the prohibition of importing either live cattle or salt provisions from foreign countries secures to the graziers of Great Britain the monopoly of the home market for butcher's meat. The high duties upon the importation of corn, which in times of moderate plenty amount to a prohibition, give a like advantage to the growers of that commodity. The prohibition of the importation of foreign woollens is equally favorable to the woolen manufacturers. The silk manufacture, though altogether employed upon foreign materials, has lately obtained the same advantage. The linen manufacture has not yet obtained it, but is making great strides towards it. Many other sorts of manufacturers have, in the same manner, obtained in Great Britain, either altogether, or very nearly a monopoly against their countrymen. The variety of goods of which the importation into Great Britain is prohibited either absolutely, or under certain circumstances, greatly exceeds what can easily be suspected by those who are not well acquainted with the laws of the customs. (*Restrictions on importations are now few.*)

That this monopoly of the home market frequently gives great encouragement to that particular species of industry which enjoys it, and frequently turns towards that employment a greater share of both the labor and stock of the society than would otherwise have gone to it, cannot be doubted. But whether it tends either to increase the general industry of the society, or to give it the most advantageous direction, is not, perhaps, altogether so evident.

The general industry of the society can never exceed what the capital of the society can employ. As the number of workmen that can be kept in employment by any particular person must bear a certain proportion to his capital, so the number of those that can be continually employed by all the members of a great society, must bear a certain proportion to the whole capital of that society, and can never exceed that proportion. No regulation of commerce can increase the quantity of industry in any society beyond what its capital can maintain. It can only divert a part of it into a direction into which it might not otherwise have gone ; and it is by no means certain that this artificial direction is likely to be more advantageous to the society than that into which it would have gone of its own accord.

Every individual is exerting himself to find out the most advantageous employment for whatever capital he can command. It is his own advantage, indeed, and not that of the society, which he has in view. But the study of his own advantage, naturally, or rather necessarily, leads him to prefer that employment which is most advantageous to the society.

I. Every individual endeavors to employ his capital as near home as he can, and consequently as much as he can in the support of domestic industry, provided always that he can thereby obtain the ordinary, or not a great deal less than the ordinary, profits of stock.

Thus, upon equal or nearly equal profits, every wholesale merchant naturally prefers the home trade to the foreign trade of consumption, and the foreign trade of consumption to the carrying trade. In the home trade his capital is never so long out of his sight as it frequently is in the foreign trade of consumption. He can know better the character and situation of the person whom he trusts, and if he should happen to be deceived, he knows better the laws of the country from which he must seek redress. In the carrying trade the capital of the merchant is, as it were, divided between two foreign countries, and no part of it is ever necessarily brought home, or placed under his own immediate view and command. The capital which an Amsterdam merchant employs in carrying corn from Königsberg to Lisbon, and fruit and wine from Lisbon to Königsberg, must generally be the one-half of it at Königsberg and the other half at Lisbon. No part of it need ever come to Amsterdam. The natural residence of such a merchant should either be at Königsberg or Lisbon, and it can only be some very particular circumstances which can make him prefer the residence of

Amsterdam. The uneasiness, however, which he feels at being separated so far from his capital, generally determines him to bring part both of the Königsberg goods which he destines for the market of Lisbon, and the Lisbon goods which he destines for that of Königsberg, to Amsterdam; and though this necessarily subjects him to a double charge of loading and unloading, as well as to the payment of some duties and customs, yet for the sake of having some part of his capital always under his own view and command, he willingly submits to this extraordinary charge; and it is in this manner that every country which has any considerable share of the carrying trade, becomes always the emporium, or general market, for the goods of all the different countries whose trade it carries on. The merchant, in order to save a second loading and unloading, endeavors always to sell in the home market as much of the goods of all those different countries as he can, and thus, so far as he can, to convert his carrying trade into a foreign trade of consumption. A merchant, in the same manner, who is engaged in the foreign trade of consumption, when he collects goods for foreign markets, will always be glad, upon equal or nearly equal profits, to sell as great part of them at home as he can. He saves himself the risk and trouble of exportation, when, so far as he can, he thus converts his foreign trade of consumption into a home trade. Home is in this manner the centre, if I may say so, round which the capitals of the inhabitants of every country are continually circulating, and towards which they are always tending, though by particular causes they may sometimes be driven off and repelled from it towards more distant employment. But a capital employed in the home trade, it has already been shown, necessarily puts into motion a greater quantity of domestic industry, and gives revenue and employment to a greater number of the inhabitants of the country, than an equal capital employed in the foreign trade of consumption; and one employed in the foreign trade of consumption has the same advantage over an equal capital employed in the carrying trade. Upon equal or only nearly equal profits, therefore, every individual naturally inclines to employ his capital in the manner in which it is likely to afford the greatest support to domestic industry, and to give revenue and employment to the greatest number of people of his own country.

II. Every individual who employs his capital in the support of domestic industry, necessarily endeavors so to direct that industry, that its produce may be of the greatest possible value.

The produce of industry is what it adds to the subject or materials upon which it is employed. In proportion as the value of this produce is great or small, so will likewise be the profits of the employer. But it is only for the sake of profit that any man employs a capital in the support of industry; and he will always, therefore, endeavor to employ it in the support of that industry of which the produce is likely to be of the greatest value, or to exchange for the greatest quantity either of money or of other goods.

But the annual revenue of every society is always precisely equal to the exchangeable value of the whole annual produce of its industry, or rather is precisely the same thing with that exchangeable value. As every individual, therefore, endeavors as much as he can both to employ his capital in the support of domestic industry, and so to direct that industry that its produce may be of the greatest value, every individual necessarily labors to render the annual revenue of the society as great as he can. He generally, indeed, neither intends to promote the public interest, nor knows how much he is promoting it. By preferring the support of domestic to that of foreign industry, he intends only his own security; and by directing that industry in such a manner as its produce may be of the greatest value, he intends only his own gain, and he is in this, as in many other cases, led by an invisible hand to promote an end which was no part of his intention. Nor is it always the worse for the society that it was no part of it. By pursuing his own interest he frequently promotes that of the society more effectually than when he really intends to promote it. I have never known much good done by those who affected to trade for the public good. It is an affection, indeed, not very common among merchants, and very few words need be employed in dissuading them from it.

What is the species of domestic industry which his capital can employ, and of which the produce is likely to be of the greatest value, every individual, it is evident, can, in this local situation, judge much better than any statesman or lawgiver can do for him. The statesman, who should attempt to direct private people in what manner they ought to employ their capitals, would not only load himself with a most unnecessary attention, but assume an authority which could safely be trusted, not only to no single person, but to no council or senate whatever, and which would nowhere be so dangerous as in the hands of a man who had folly and presumption enough to fancy himself fit to exercise it.

To give the monopoly of the home market to the produce of domestic industry, in any particular art or manufacture, is in some measure to direct private people in what manner they ought to employ their capitals, and must, in almost all cases, be either a useless or a hurtful regulation. If the produce of domestic can be brought there as cheap as that of foreign industry, the regulation is evidently useless. If it cannot, it must generally be hurtful. It is the maxim of every prudent master of a family, never to attempt to make at home

what it will cost him more to make than to buy. The tailor does not attempt to make his own shoes, but buys them of the shoemaker. The shoemaker does not attempt to make his own clothes, but employs a tailor. The farmer attempts to make neither the one nor the other, but employs those different artificers. All of them find it for their interest to employ their whole industry in a way in which they have some advantage over their neighbors, and to purchase with a part of its produce, or what is the same thing, with the price of a part of it, whatever else they have occasion for.

What is prudence in the conduct of every private family, can scarce be folly in that of a great kingdom. If a foreign country can supply us with a commodity cheaper than we ourselves can make it, better buy it of them with some part of the produce of our own industry, employed in a way in which we have some advantage. The general industry of the country, being always in proportion to the capital which employs it, will not thereby be diminished, no more than that of the above-mentioned artificers; but only left to find out the way in which it can be employed with the greatest advantage. It is certainly not employed to the greatest advantage when it is thus directed towards an object which it can buy cheaper than it can make. The value of its annual produce is certainly more or less diminished, when it is thus turned away from producing commodities evidently of more value than the commodity which it is directed to produce. According to the supposition, that commodity could be purchased from foreign countries cheaper than it can be made at home. It could, therefore, have been purchased with a part only of the commodities, or, what is the same thing, with a part only of the price of the commodities, which the industries employed by an equal capital would have produced at home, had it been left to follow its natural course. The industry of the country, therefore, is thus turned away from a more, to a less advantageous employment, and the exchangeable value of its annual produce, instead of being increased, according to the intention of the lawgiver, must necessarily be diminished by every such regulation.

By means of such regulations, indeed, a particular manufacture may sometimes be acquired sooner than it could have been otherwise, and after a certain time may be made at home as cheap or cheaper than in the foreign country. But though the industry of the society may be thus carried with advantage into a particular channel sooner than it could have been otherwise, it will by no means follow that the sum total, either of its industry, or of its revenue, can ever be augmented by any such regulation. The industry of the society can augment only in proportion as its capital augments, and its capital can augment only in proportion to what can be gradually saved out of its revenue. But the immediate effect of every such regulation is to diminish its revenue, and what diminishes its revenue is certainly not very likely to augment its capital faster than it would have augmented of its own accord, had both their capital and their industry been left to find out their natural employments.

Though for want of such regulations the society should never acquire the proposed manufacture, it would not, upon that account, necessarily be the poorer, in any one period of its duration. In every period of its duration its whole capital and industry might still have been employed, though upon different objects, in the manner that was most advantageous at the time. In every period its revenue might have been the greatest which its capital could afford, and both capital and revenue might have been augmented with the greatest possible rapidity.

The natural advantages which one country has over another in producing particular commodities are sometimes so great, that it is acknowledged by all the world to be in vain to struggle with them. By means of glasses, hotbeds, and hot walls, very good grapes can be raised in Scotland, and very good wine, too, can be made of them at about thirty times the expense for which at least equally good can be brought from foreign countries. Would it be a reasonable law to prohibit the importation of all foreign wines merely to encourage the making of claret and burgundy in Scotland? But if there would be a manifest absurdity in turning towards any employment, thirty times more of the capital and industry of the country than would be necessary to purchase from foreign countries an equal quantity of the commodities wanted, there must be an absurdity, though not altogether so glaring, yet exactly of the same kind, in turning toward any such employment, a thirtieth, or even a three hundredth part more of either. Whether the advantages which one country has over another be natural or acquired, is in this respect of no consequence. As long as the one country has those advantages, and the other wants them, it will always be more advantageous for the latter rather to buy of the former than to make. It is an acquired advantage only which one artificer has over his neighbor who exercises another trade; and yet they both find it more advantageous to buy of one another, than to make what does not belong to their particular trades.

Merchants and manufacturers are the people who derive the greatest advantage from this monopoly of the home market. The prohibition of the importation of foreign cattle, and of salt provisions, together with the high duties upon foreign corn, which in times of moderate plenty amount to a prohibition, are not

near so advantageous to the graziers and farmers of Great Britain, as other regulations of the same kind are to its merchants and manufacturers. Manufactures, those of the finer kind especially, are more easily transported from one country to another than corn or cattle. It is in the fetching and carrying manufactures, accordingly, that foreign trade is chiefly employed. In manufactures, a very small advantage will enable foreigners to undersell our own workmen, even in the home market. It will require a very great one to enable them to do so in the rude produce of the soil. If the free importation of foreign manufactures were permitted, several of the home manufactures would probably suffer, and some of them, perhaps, go to ruin altogether, and a considerable part of the stock and industry at present employed in them would be forced to find out some other employment. But the freest importation of the rude produce of the soil could have no such effect upon the agriculture of the country.

Country gentlemen and farmers are, to their great honor, of all people, the least subject to the wretched spirit of monopoly. The undertaker of a great manufactory is sometimes alarmed if another work of the same kind is established within twenty miles of him. The Dutch undertaker of the woolen manufacture at Abbeville stipulated that no work of the same kind should be established within thirty leagues of that city. Farmers and country gentlemen, on the contrary, are generally disposed rather to promote than to obstruct the cultivation and improvement of their neighbor's farms and estates. They have no secrets, such as those of the greater part of manufacturers, but are generally rather fond of communicating to their neighbors, and of extending as far as possible, any new practice which they have found to be advantageous. *Pius Questus*, says old Cato, *stabilis-simisque, minimeque invidiosus; minimeque male cogitantes, sunt, qui in eo studio occupati sunt*. Country gentlemen and farmers, dispersed in different parts of the country, cannot so easily combine as merchants and manufacturers, who being collected into towns, and accustomed to that exclusive corporation spirit which prevails in them, naturally endeavor to obtain against all their countrymen the same exclusive privilege which they generally possess against the inhabitants of their respective towns. They accordingly seem to have been the original inventors of those restraints upon the importation of foreign goods, which secure to them the monopoly of the home market. It was probably in imitation of them, and to put themselves upon a level with those who, they found, were disposed to oppress them, that the country gentlemen and farmers of Great Britain so far forgot the generosity which is natural to their station, as to demand the exclusive privilege of supplying their countrymen with corn and butcher's-meat. They did not perhaps take time to consider, how much less their interest could be affected by the freedom of trade, than that of the people whose example they followed.

To prohibit by a perpetual law the importation of foreign corn and cattle, is in reality to enact, that the population and industry of the country shall at no time exceed what the rude produce of its own soil can maintain.

There seems, however, to be two cases in which it will generally be advantageous to lay some burden upon a foreign, for the encouragement of domestic industry.

The first is, when some particular sort of industry is necessary for the defence of the country. The defence of Great Britain, for example, depends very much upon the number of its sailors and shipping. The act of navigation, therefore, very properly endeavors to give the sailors and shipping of Great Britain the monopoly of the trade of their own country, in some cases, by absolute prohibitions, and in others by heavy burdens upon the shipping of foreign countries.

SMITH ON THE ADVANTAGE OF PROTECTION.

The second case in which it will generally be advantageous to lay some burden upon foreign, or the encouragement of domestic industry, is when some tax is imposed at home upon the produce of the latter. In this case, it seems reasonable that an equal tax should be imposed upon the like produce of the former. This would not give the monopoly of the home market to domestic industry, nor turn towards a particular employment a greater share of the stock and labor of the country than what would naturally go to it. It would only hinder any part of what would naturally go to it from being turned away by the tax, into a less natural direction, and would leave the competition between foreign and domestic industry, after the tax, as nearly as possible upon the same footing as before it. In Great Britain, when any such tax is laid upon the produce of domestic industry, it is usual at the same time, in order to stop the clamorous complaints of our merchants and manufacturers, that they will be undersold at home, to lay a much heavier duty upon the importation of all foreign goods of the same kind.

Such taxes when they have grown up to a certain height, are a curse equal to the barrenness of the earth and the inclemency of the heavens; and yet it is in the richest and most industrious countries that they have

been most generally imposed. No other countries could support so great a disorder. As the strongest bodies only can live and enjoy health, under an unwholesome regimen, so the nations only, that in every sort of industry have the greatest natural and acquired advantages, can subsist and prosper under such taxes. Holland is the country in Europe in which they abound most, and which from peculiar circumstances continues to prosper, not by means of them, as has been most absurdly supposed, but in spite of them.

As there are two cases in which it will generally be advantageous to lay some burden upon foreign, for the encouragement of domestic industry, so there are two others in which they may sometimes be a matter of deliberation; in the one, how far it is proper to continue the free importation of certain foreign goods; and in the other, how far, or in what manner, it may be proper to restore that free importation after it has been for some time interrupted.

The case in which it may sometimes be a matter of deliberation how far it is proper to continue the free importation of certain foreign goods, is, when some foreign nation restrains by high duties or prohibitions the importation of some of our manufactures into their country. Revenge in this case naturally dictates retaliation, and that we should impose the like duties and prohibitions upon the importation of some or all of their manufactures into ours. Nations accordingly seldom fail to retaliate in this manner. The French have been particularly forward to favor their own manufactures by restraining the importation of such foreign goods as could come into competition with them. In this consisted a great part of the Policy of Mr. Colbert, who, notwithstanding his great abilities, seems in this case to have been imposed upon by the sophistry of merchants and manufacturers, who are always demanding a monopoly against their countrymen. It is at present the opinion of the most intelligent men in France that his operations of this kind have not been beneficial to his country. That minister, by the tariff of 1667, imposed very high duties upon a great number of foreign manufactures. Upon his refusing to moderate them in favor of the Dutch, they in 1671 prohibited the importation of the wines, brandies, and manufactures of France. The war of 1672 seems to have been in part occasioned by this commercial dispute. The peace of Nimeguen put an end to it in 1678, by moderating some of those duties in favor of the Dutch, who in consequence took off their prohibition. It was about the same time that the French and English began mutually to oppress each other's industry, by the like duties and prohibitions, of which the French, however, seem to have set the first example. The spirit of hostility which has subsisted between the two nations ever since, has hitherto hindered them from being moderated on either side. In 1697 the English prohibited the importation of bonelace, the manufacture of Flanders. The government of that country, at that time under the dominion of Spain, prohibited in return the importation of English woollens. In 1700, the prohibition of importing bonelace into England was taken off upon condition that the importations of the English woollens into Flanders should be put on the same footing as before.

There may be a good policy in retaliations of this kind, when there is a probability that they will procure the repeal of the high duties or prohibitions complained of. The recovery of a great foreign market will generally more than compensate the transitory inconvenience of paying dearer during a short time for some sort of goods. To judge whether such retaliations are likely to produce such an effect, does not, perhaps, belong so much to the science of a legislator, whose deliberations ought to be governed by general principles which are always the same, as to the skill of that insidious and crafty animal, vulgarly called a statesman or politician, whose councils are directed by the monetary fluctuations of affairs. When there is no probability that any such repeal can be procured, it seems a bad method of compensating the injury done to certain classes of our people, to do another injury ourselves, not only to those classes, but to almost all the other classes of them. When our neighbors prohibit some manufacture of ours, we generally prohibit, not only the same, for that alone would seldom affect them considerably, but some other manufacture of theirs. This may no doubt give encouragement to some particular class of workmen among ourselves, and by excluding some of their rivals, may enable them to raise their price in the home market. Those workmen, however, who suffered by our neighbor's prohibition will not be benefited by ours. On the contrary, they and almost all the other classes of our citizens will thereby be obliged to pay dearer than before for certain goods. Every such law, therefore, imposes a real tax upon the whole country, not in favor of that particular class of workmen who were injured by our neighbors' prohibition, but of some other class.

The case in which it may sometimes be a matter of deliberation, how far, or in what manner it is proper to restore the free importation of foreign goods, after it has been for some time interrupted, is, when particular manufactures, by means of high duties or prohibitions upon all foreign goods which can come into competition with them, have been so far extended as to employ a great multitude of hands. Humanity may in this case require that the freedom of trade should be restored only by slow gradations and with a good deal of reserve and circumspection. Were those high duties and prohibitions taken away all at once, cheaper

foreign goods of the same kind might be poured so fast into the home market, as to deprive all at once many thousands of our people of their ordinary employment and means of subsistence. The disorder which this would occasion might no doubt be very considerable. It would in all probability, however, be much less than is commonly imagined, for the two following reasons :

First, all those manufactures, of which any part is commonly exported to other European countries without a bounty, could be very little affected by the freest importation of foreign goods. Such manufactures must be sold as cheap abroad as any other foreign goods of the same quality and kind, and consequently must be sold cheaper at home. They would still, therefore, keep possession of the home market, and though a capricious man of fashion might sometimes prefer foreign wares, merely because they were foreign, to cheaper and better goods of the same kind that were made at home, this folly could, from the nature of things, extend to so few, that it could make no sensible impression upon the general employment of the people. But a great part of all the different branches of our woolen manufacture, of our tanned leather, and of our hardware, are annually exported to other European countries without any bounty, and these are the manufactures which employ the greatest number of hands. The silk, perhaps, is the manufacture which would suffer the most by this freedom of trade, and after it the linen, though the latter much less than the former.

Secondly, though a great number of people should, by thus restoring the freedom of trade, be thrown all at once out of their ordinary employment and common method of subsistence, it would by no means follow that they would thereby be deprived either of employment or subsistence. By the reduction of the army and navy at the end of the late war, more than a hundred thousand soldiers and seamen, a number equal to what is employed in the greatest manufactures, were all at once thrown out of their ordinary employment ; but, though they no doubt suffered some inconveniency, they were not thereby deprived of all employment and subsistence. The greater part of the seamen, it is probable, gradually betook themselves to the merchant service as they could find occasion, and in the meantime both they and the soldiers were absorbed in the great mass of the people, and employed in a great variety of occupations. Not only no great convulsion, but no sensible disorder arose from so great a change in the situation of more than a hundred thousand men, all accustomed to the use of arms, and many of them to rapine and plunder. The number of vagrants was scarce anywhere sensibly increased by it, even the wages of labor were not reduced by it in any occupation, so far as I have been able to learn, except in that of seamen in the merchant-service. But if we compare together the habits of a soldier and of any sort of manufacturer, we shall find that those of the latter do not tend so much to disqualify him from being employed in a new trade, as those of the former from being employed in any. The manufacturer has always been accustomed to look for his subsistence from his labor only ; the soldier to expect it from his pay. Application and industry have been familiar to the one ; idleness and dissipation to the other. But it is surely much easier to change the direction of industry from one sort of labor to another, than to turn idleness and dissipation to any. To the greater part of manufactures besides, it has already been observed, there are other collateral manufactures of so similar a nature, that a workman can easily transfer his industry from one of them to another. The greater part of such workmen too are occasionally employed in country labor. The stock which employed them in a particular manufacture before, will still remain in the country to employ an equal number of people in some other way. The capital of the country remaining the same, the demand for labor will likewise be the same, or very nearly the same, though it may be exerted in different places and for different occupations. Soldiers and seamen, indeed, when discharged from the king's service, are at liberty to exercise any trade, within any town or place of Great Britain or Ireland. Let the same natural liberty of exercising what species of industry they please be restored to all His Majesty's subjects, in the same manner as to soldiers and seamen ; that is, break down the exclusive privileges of corporations, and repeal the statute of apprenticeship, both which are real encroachments upon natural liberty, and add to these the repeal of the law of settlements, so that a poor workman, when thrown out of employment, either in one trade, or in one place, may seek for it in another trade, or in another place, without the fear either of a prosecution or of a removal, and neither the public nor the individuals will suffer much more from the occasional disbanding some particular classes of manufactures, than from that of soldiers. Our manufactures have no doubt great merit with their country, but they cannot have more than those who defend it with their blood, nor deserve to be treated with more delicacy.

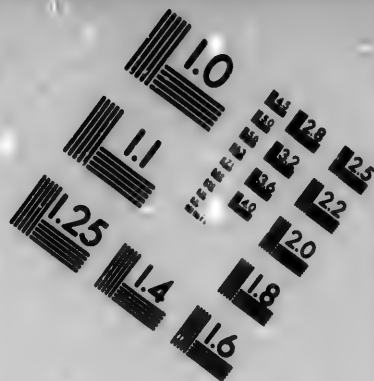
To expect, indeed, that the freedom of trade should ever be entirely restored in Great Britain, is as absurd as to expect that an Oceania or Utopia should ever be established in it. Not only the prejudices of the public, but what is much more unconquerable, the private interests of many individuals, irresistibly oppose it. Were the officers of the army to oppose with the same zeal and unanimity any reduction in the number of forces, with which master manufacturers set themselves against every law that is likely to increase

the number of their rivals in the home market ; were the former to animate the soldiers, in the same manner as the latter enflame their workmen, to attack with violence and outrage the proposers of any such regulation,—to attempt to reduce the army would be as dangerous as it has now become to attempt to diminish in any respect the monopoly which our manufacturers have obtained against us. This monopoly has so much increased the number of some particular tribes of them that, like an overgrown standing army, they have become formidable to the government, and upon many occasions intimidate the legislature. The member of parliament who supports every proposal for strengthening this monopoly, is sure to acquire not only the reputation of understanding trade, but great popularity and influence with an order of men whose numbers and wealth render them of great importance. If he opposes them, on the contrary, and still more if he has authority enough to be able to thwart them, neither the most acknowledged probity, nor the highest rank, nor the greatest public services, can protect him from the most infamous abuse and detraction, from personal insults, nor sometimes from real danger, arising from the insolent outrage of furious and disappointed monopolists.

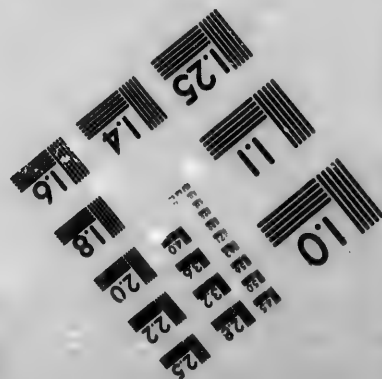
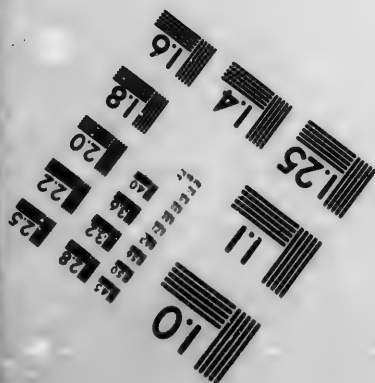
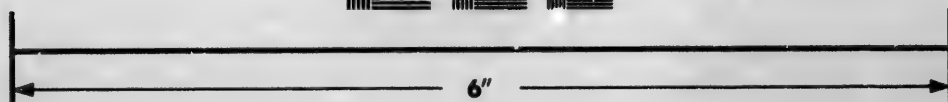
The undertaker of a great manufacture, who, by the home markets being suddenly laid open to the competition of foreigners, should be obliged to abandon his trade, would no doubt suffer very considerably. That part of his capital which had usually been employed in purchasing materials and in paying his workmen might, without much difficulty perhaps, find another employment. But that part of it which was fixed in work-houses, and in the instruments of trade, could scarce be disposed of without considerable loss. The equitable regard, therefore, to his interest requires that changes of this kind should never be introduced suddenly, but slowly, gradually, and after a very long warning. The legislature, were it possible that its deliberations could be always directed, not by the clamorous importunity of partial interests, but by an extensive view of the general good, ought upon this very account, perhaps, to be particularly careful neither to establish any new monopolies of this kind, nor to extend further those which are already established. Every such legislation introduces some degree of real disorder into the constitution of the state, which it will be difficult afterwards to cure without occasioning another disorder.

How far it may be proper to impose taxes upon the importation of foreign goods, in order, not to prevent their importation, but to raise a revenue for government, I shall consider hereafter when I come to treat of taxes. Taxes imposed with a view to prevent, or even to diminish importation, are evidently as destructive of the revenue of the customs as of the freedom of trade.





A resolution test chart featuring various patterns of horizontal and vertical lines of increasing frequency. Each pattern is accompanied by a numerical value indicating its resolution. The values include 1.0, 1.1, 1.25, 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, 2.0, 2.2, 2.5, 2.8, 3.2, 3.6, 4.0, 4.5, 5.0, 5.6, 6.3, 7.1, 8.0, 9.0, 10, 11.2, 12.5, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22.5, 25, 28, 32, 36, 40, 45, 50, 56, 63, 71, 80, 90, 100, 112, 125, 140, 160, 180, 200, 225, 250, 280, 320, 360, 400, 450, 500, 560, 630, 710, 800, 900, 1000, 1120, 1250, 1400, 1600, 1800, 2000, 2250, 2500, 2800, 3200, 3600, 4000, 4500, 5000, 5600, 6300, 7100, 8000, 9000, 10000, 11200, 12500, 14000, 16000, 18000, 20000, 22500, 25000, 28000, 32000, 36000, 40000, 45000, 50000, 56000, 63000, 71000, 80000, 90000, 100000, 112000, 125000, 140000, 160000, 180000, 200000, 225000, 250000, 280000, 320000, 360000, 400000, 450000, 500000, 560000, 630000, 710000, 800000, 900000, 1000000, 1120000, 1250000, 1400000, 1600000, 1800000, 2000000, 2250000, 2500000, 2800000, 3200000, 3600000, 4000000, 4500000, 5000000, 5600000, 6300000, 7100000, 8000000, 9000000, 10000000, 11200000, 12500000, 14000000, 16000000, 18000000, 20000000, 22500000, 25000000, 28000000, 32000000, 36000000, 40000000, 45000000, 50000000, 56000000, 63000000, 71000000, 80000000, 90000000, 100000000, 112000000, 125000000, 140000000, 160000000, 180000000, 200000000, 225000000, 250000000, 280000000, 320000000, 360000000, 400000000, 450000000, 500000000, 560000000, 630000000, 710000000, 800000000, 900000000, 1000000000, 1120000000, 1250000000, 1400000000, 1600000000, 1800000000, 2000000000, 2250000000, 2500000000, 2800000000, 3200000000, 3600000000, 4000000000, 4500000000, 5000000000, 5600000000, 6300000000, 7100000000, 8000000000, 9000000000, 10000000000, 11200000000, 12500000000, 14000000000, 16000000000, 18000000000, 20000000000, 22500000000, 25000000000, 28000000000, 32000000000, 36000000000, 40000000000, 45000000000, 50000000000, 56000000000, 63000000000, 71000000000, 80000000000, 90000000000, 100000000000, 112000000000, 125000000000, 140000000000, 160000000000, 180000000000, 200000000000, 225000000000, 250000000000, 280000000000, 320000000000, 360000000000, 400000000000, 450000000000, 500000000000, 560000000000, 630000000000, 710000000000, 800000000000, 900000000000, 1000000000000, 1120000000000, 1250000000000, 1400000000000, 1600000000000, 1800000000000, 2000000000000, 2250000000000, 2500000000000, 2800000000000, 3200000000000, 3600000000000, 4000000000000, 4500000000000, 5000000000000, 5600000000000, 6300000000000, 7100000000000, 8000000000000, 9000000000000, 10000000000000, 11200000000000, 12500000000000, 14000000000000, 16000000000000, 18000000000000, 20000000000000, 22500000000000, 25000000000000, 28000000000000, 32000000000000, 36000000000000, 40000000000000, 45000000000000, 50000000000000, 56000000000000, 63000000000000, 71000000000000, 80000000000000, 90000000000000, 100000000000000, 112000000000000, 125000000000000, 140000000000000, 160000000000000, 180000000000000, 200000000000000, 225000000000000, 250000000000000, 280000000000000, 320000000000000, 360000000000000, 400000000000000, 450000000000000, 500000000000000, 560000000000000, 630000000000000, 710000000000000, 800000000000000, 900000000000000, 1000000000000000, 1120000000000000, 1250000000000000, 1400000000000000, 1600000000000000, 1800000000000000, 2000000000000000, 2250000000000000, 2500000000000000, 2800000000000000, 3200000000000000, 3600000000000000, 4000000000000000, 4500000000000000, 5000000000000000, 5600000000000000, 6300000000000000, 7100000000000000, 8000000000000000, 9000000000000000, 10000000000000000, 11200000000000000, 12500000000000000, 14000000000000000, 16000000000000000, 18000000000000000, 20000000000000000, 22500000000000000, 25000000000000000, 28000000000000000, 32000000000000000, 36000000000000000, 40000000000000000, 45000000000000000, 50000000000000000, 56000000000000000, 63000000000000000, 71000000000000000, 80000000000000000, 90000000000000000, 100000000000000000, 112000000000000000, 125000000000000000, 140000000000000000, 160000000000000000, 180000000000000000, 200000000000000000, 225000000000000000, 250000000000000000, 280000000000000000, 320000000000000000, 360000000000000000, 400000000000000000,



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THE BANK OF MONTREAL.

THERE is so much that is unique in the prosperity of Canada, that to form an adequate idea of the position of the Dominion in the commercial world to-day is scarcely possible without at least a glance at the history and present condition of the industries whose prosperity is identical with the country's well-being.

Canadians may be said to have had ever before them an ideal Canada, vast in territory, populous, foremost in the progress of an enlightened age, accessible, presenting attractions alike to the capitalist and the laborer, to the man of culture, and to the man of enterprise.

The day is nearing when this ideal Canada will be an accomplished fact. Canadians are a practical people, and "showing their faith by their works," have placed their country in a position which justifies their patriotic pride. Principal among the evidences of Canada's prosperity are her railways, almost altogether the result of private enterprise. The Government has only built or acquired such lines as were required by public policy, these being the Intercolonial and connections, and the Prince Edward Island railways. The Federal Government has, however, encouraged very largely private enterprise, and has at different times granted large bonuses, and the several Provincial Governments, as well as various municipalities, have granted aid to a very considerable extent. Canada has at the present time more than 15,000 miles of railway under the management of 127 different organizations. Twenty-five of these have been amalgamated, and form the Grand Trunk system. The consolidation of twenty-one others has produced the Canadian Pacific Railway system. The remaining eighty-two are separate organizations.

The Dominion is well supplied with natural means of inter-communication. Much time and money have been expended upon the improvement of rivers, the most notable effort in this direction being the improvement of the St. Lawrence, which has rendered Montreal remarkable, inasmuch as it is a fresh water port frequented by the largest craft, nearly one thousand miles inland from the Atlantic.

The canal system of Canada is very extensive, and is an important factor in the transport service of the country. Canada ranks as the fifth maritime power in the amount of the gross tonnage of her vessels. Since confederation, 200,000,000 tons of sea-going shipping have entered the sea-ports of Canada; 162,000,000 tons have crossed and re-crossed the great lakes between Canada and the United States; 350,000,000 tons have passed between Canadian ports, doing the coasting trade of the country.

The mineral wealth of Canada is very great. It has been said that the richest corner of her natural storehouse is that which holds the minerals. With the single exception of tin, there is no mineral of marked economic value that she is not known to possess, and much of her territory is as yet unexplored.

In nothing, however, has the prosperity of the Dominion given stronger signs of an enduring ability than in the number and steady growth of her towns and cities. Chief among these is Montreal, the leading seaport, and the commercial centre of the Dominion, marked out by its magnificent situation for a great future.

Architecturally speaking, Montreal is the London of Canada. It has more variety in its architecture, and its public buildings are more tasteful and massive than those of almost any other city on the American continent. Tourists are attracted by the beauty of its edifices alone. The eye of the visiting architect is always caught by the classic beauty of the facade of the Bank of Montreal. This building, fronting on St. James street, looks up on Place d'Armes Square, a spot rich with historic associations. The building is one of the most extensive, solid, and ornate in America. It contains the head office of the largest monetary institution on the continent, and the largest colonial bank in the world.

There probably does not exist in any part of the world, another bank which has done so much to make known abroad the country which it represents as the Bank of Montreal. It stands fourth in the World's List. Its letters of credit are honoured in every land. Whether on the London or the New York exchanges, the character of the bank commands respect, and its resources justify confidence. It is, in short, one of the World's great banking institutions. The history of the Bank of Montreal contains much that is identical with, and peculiar to Canadian history and progress. Its growth and prosperity speak volumes for the stability of commercial life in the Dominion.

Like many another corporation, powerful and influential enough to affect the destinies of successive generations, the Bank of Montreal rose from a comparatively insignificant commencement. In the year 1817,

a number of Montreal merchants resolved to found a local bank. It opened in the following year with a capital of £87,500, Halifax currency, or say \$350,000. It was regarded cautiously, as an adventure, but the signs were hopeful, and in December, 1820, the first year of the reign of George IV, it was incorporated by Act of Parliament. However, the petition for His Majesty's sanction of the incorporation, though presented in March 7, 1821, appears not to have been sanctioned until May 18, 1822.

Among the associate petitioners were many whose names will be familiar to later generations, as more or less connected with the history of the City of Montreal, and with the advancement of the country's interests. Some of these were:—Samuel Gerrard, James Leslie, F. A. Larocque, Thomas Porteous, David David, Frederick W. Ermatinger, C. C. Ermatinger, C. G. Leslie, H. Mackenzie, John Inglis, Edward Ellice, J. B. Inglis, James Inglis, John Forsyth, David Ross, Samuel Gale, Thomas Torrance, Charles Bancroft, Horatio Gates Cornelius Peck, Jean Bouthillier, Henry Joseph, Joseph Donegani, John Torrance, Alexander Auldjo, George Moffatt, Samuel Holt, William Porteous, Thomas Busby, Joseph Henshaw, John Fry, W. D. Selby,



BANK OF MONTREAL.—HEAD OFFICE.

Kenneth Dowie, Robert Gillespie, M. J. Hays, Benjamin Holmes, William Yule, James Buchanan, Robert Griffin, Noah Freer, George Symes, James Ross, and Andrew Moir.

The first place of business occupied by the Association was burned soon after the opening of the bank, and they built another upon the site afterwards occupied successively by La Banque du Peuple, and by the Post Office, the new edifice costing £11,000.

Two of the original founders of the bank, Mr. Cuvillier and Mr. Torrance, lived to see its capital swelled to more than thirty times the original amount. In ten years, the capital of the bank was doubled, and it rose to a million shortly before the rebellion of 1837. The story of the increase of the paid-up capital of the Bank of Montreal is one of the most remarkable things in banking history. In 1829, the capital was \$850,000; in 1841, \$2,000,000; in 1845, \$3,000,000; in 1855, \$4,000,000; in 1860, \$6,000,000; in 1873, \$12,000,000, at which it now stands, the largest capital on the American continent.

That the affairs of the bank were carefully conducted, will be seen from a glance at the growth of the "rests" or reserved profits, which are held as so much additional capital. After 8 per cent. had been paid as dividend in 1819, a balance of \$4,168 remained on hand, and was laid aside as a rest. From that date of

small beginnings the amount has steadily grown, making the assurance of shareholders doubly sure. In 1825, it was \$30,780, going down to \$12,064 in the following year, and up to \$107,084 two years later; in 1830, it stood at \$31,360. Five years later it stood at \$80,660, rushing up to \$197,828 in 1837; in 1840, it showed \$89,480; in 1850, \$120,192; in 1860, \$740,000; in 1870, \$3,000,000; in 1880, \$5,000,000; in 1883, \$5,750,000; and now \$6,000,000.

The prosperity which the Bank of Montreal has commanded almost from its inception, and its long continued immunity from anything like a threat of disaster, must be attributed mainly to the ability and prudence with which its affairs have been managed.

It is not usual to associate in our minds the successes of the financial and commercial world with sentiments of chivalry and patriotism. But, whatever may be true of other lands, certain it is that the narrative of the onward progress of civilization in the New World is intermingled with much of romance and lofty feeling. Each stage of this country's progress recounts to us, in all the simplicity of unpremeditated record, sacrifices endured, hardships encountered and brave deeds done, not amid the applause of an interested and anxious world, but rather in silent, undemonstrative devotion to duty in circumstances when every sense grew sharp by reason of restless emergency, and when the consciousness of duty done was the sole reward achieved. Such was the spirit that animated the men who founded Canadian commerce.



BANK OF MONTREAL—TORONTO BRANCH.

Under the presidency of Mr. John Gray, who held the position from 1817 until 1820, a careful banking regime was established. Mr. Gray's policy was endorsed and perpetuated by his successor in office, Mr. Samuel Gerrard, who occupied the presidential chair until 1827. The Hon. Horatio Gates was called to the presidency upon the retirement of Mr. Gerrard, but he held the position for only a brief period, and Mr. John Molson took the reins of government into his hands. He was followed by Hon. Peter McGill, who managed the affairs of the bank from 1835 until 1860, twenty-five years of great prosperity. Mr. McGill retired on account of failing health, and was succeeded by Mr. T. B. Anderson, who held his place for nine years.

In the early days of the bank the work had been placed in the hands of a cashier, one teller, and one accountant, the conduct of affairs devolving upon the president, but, in 1827, when Mr. Benjamin Holmes succeeded Mr. Griffin as cashier, it was established that the bank must depend rather upon the cashier than upon the president for general management. In 1855, Mr. David Davidson, who had been for a considerable time manager of the Bank of British North America in Montreal, became cashier, and, at his suggestion, an Act of Parliament was demanded and granted, changing the title of cashier into that of general-manager.

Mr. Davidson was a man of great ability, the constitution of his mind being most happily adapted for the successful performance of the duties demanded by his office. In him, enterprise and caution were evenly

balanced. His first act was the re-organization of the working of the bank by the introduction of the Scottish system.

The Bank of Scotland is the only bank constituted by Act of Parliament. It is entitled to the credit of having introduced and set on foot the distinctive principles of the Scottish banking system, which, whatever may be its defects, is perhaps superior to most other systems. All the Scottish banks receive deposits of as low a value as £10, and often lower, and allow interest upon them. A witness, connected for many years with different banks in Scotland, stated that more than half the deposits in the banks with which he had been connected were in sums from £10 to £100. He said: "The system of banking in Scotland is an extension of the provident bank system."

It was at a time of wide-spread commercial depression that this change was introduced by Mr. Davidson, and Canada was suffering as only a young and undeveloped country can suffer in such a time of universal disaster. The depression became a panic in 1857, and to Mr. Davidson's bold policy and full appreciation of the position must be ascribed the fact that the merchants of Montreal passed through the crisis unscathed. Mr. Davidson's



BANK OF MONTREAL—WEST END BRANCH,
MONTREAL.



BANK OF MONTREAL—SEIGNEURS STREET BRANCH,
MONTREAL.

skill saved the trade of the city, while it also secured to the Bank of Montreal a great and valuable business.

On the retirement of Mr. Davidson, Mr. E. H. King succeeded to the general management. During the American Civil War, Mr. King so used the resources of the bank in several United States cities as to realize handsome profits for the institution, at the same time that he obtained a *clientèle* in New York and Chicago, which justifies the continued use in those centres of large sums of the bank's money. So greatly did Mr. King win his way that, in 1859, he was made president, with Mr. R. B. Angus as general manager. This arrangement implied, in fact, a joint management, for Mr. King was not president as other presidents had been since the days of Hon. Peter McGill, that is, commercial men giving to the bank a portion of their time, mainly as filling the chair at Board meetings, but as giving all his time to the bank's affairs in conjunction with his able co-adjutor, Mr. R. B. Angus.

In 1873 the Bank was paying to its shareholders dividends of 16 per cent. per annum. The progress and development of Canada is shown by the figures which evidence the marvellous prosperity of the Bank of

Montreal, inasmuch as, whilst large sums of the Bank's money were employed out of the country—acting as it did in the capacity of a financial agency, both in New York and London, introducing Dominion and Provincial loans, as well as those of railways and other corporations—it is true, also, that the great industries of Canada, lumbering, forwarding, manufacturing and importing, have received throughout its career of seventy-four years, vital support and needed stimulus from the Bank of Montreal. The operations of the Bank are enormous. Besides the Shareholders' Capital of \$12,000,000 and an accumulated reserve of \$6,000,000, it employs nearly \$24,000,000 of deposits. The loans and discounts of this great institution are close upon forty millions of dollars.

The flourishing condition of Canada's leading Bank, together with its significant history, implies a high standard of capacity in the men who, since its foundation, have directed its transactions. A high authority well said, a few years ago: "We doubt if there is a banking institution anywhere that calls in its management for more real banking ability and larger mental resources than the Bank of Montreal. It aims to be what the Bank of England is in the Old Country—a bank for bankers as well as for merchants."



BANK OF MONTREAL—OTTAWA BRANCH.



BANK OF MONTREAL—VANCOUVER BRANCH.

The men who, within the memory of this generation, have administered the affairs of the Bank have, in every way, justified the confidence reposed in them. The early directors were patriotic, brave, religious, and philanthropic, as well as sagacious and thrifty men of business, and those upon whom the duties have devolved during recent years have been of the same stamp, fulfilling the traditions of the office.

Numerous positions of trust and honour are held by members of the present directorate. A few of the most prominent and widely-known of these Directors may be mentioned.

Sir Donald A. Smith, President of the Bank of Montreal, has for many years been Governor of the Hudson Bay Company, is Chancellor of McGill University, Director of the Canadian Pacific Railway, Member of Parliament for Montreal West, and holds as many more Presidencies and Directorships as he can be induced to accept. Sir Donald Smith is known as a public-spirited citizen, whose wealth and influence, as well as his great powers of mind, have been freely used in the service of his country.

The Hon. Geo. A. Drummond, Vice-President, is Senator, President of the Canada Sugar Refining Company, and President of the leading Coal Mining Company of Canada.

The late Sir John Abbott, K.C.M.G., Prime Minister of Canada, was a Director of the Bank. He was also a Director of the Merchant's Bank, and a Director and Attorney for the Canadian Pacific Railway. Sir John Abbott's name was for many years prominently before the public, and his memory dwells in the public mind, associated with many instances of wise legislation and judicious action in matters of public moment.

A. F. Gault, the Cotton King of Canada, is a Director of the Bank of Montreal. He is a notable instance of a man upon whom civic and political honours have been thrust, only to be by himself put aside. His vast business claims have made it necessary for him to decline the proffered honour of the Mayoralty of Montreal, and also when upon several occasions he was chosen by the Conservative party of Montreal West for the House of Commons, the same pressing emergencies compelled him to refuse the prominent position offered for his acceptance. He is a Director of the Liverpool, London and Globe Insurance Company. He is President of the Dominica Cotton Mills Company, which has a capital of \$5,000,000.

Another of the Bank's Directors, whose name is only spoken to be honoured, is W. W. Ogilvie, the leading Miller on the American Continent. He controls the flour trade of the entire Dominion, and the possibilities which the future holds for his enormous business are untold. In his important and responsible position he may be said to control the destinies of thousands, and, to his honour be it told, he has oftentimes proved himself to have at heart the best interests of all in his employ. His influence is very great and has ever been exercised for right and justice. He was recently unanimously elected President of the Board of Trade in Montreal.

Hugh McLennan and A. T. Paterson are prominently connected with various branches of the Commercial activity of Montreal.

W. C. McDonald, another Director, has bestowed at different times gifts of money to McGill University, amounting in the aggregate to nearly one million of dollars.

R. B. Angus, a Director of the Canadian Pacific Railway, was for some years general manager of the bank, of which he is now a director.

Among the principal directors of the past have been the late James B. Greenshields, John G. McKenzie, Sir John Rose, and Dr. George Campbell.

In evidence that the Bank of Montreal does, to-day, justify the hopes of its founders, and fulfil the high promise of its honourable past, no more striking proof can be given than is contained in the fact that when, a few years ago, it was necessary again to seek a successor to such financiers as have held the position of general-manager in by-gone years, one fit in every way to assume supreme control was found within the bank's own staff, in the person of Mr. Edward S. Clouston. This says much for thoroughness of the training which the bank can give to its officials.

Mr. Clouston was educated in Montreal. Great energy of mind, combined with indefatigable industry, fitted him to rise steadily and swiftly through all the grades of clerkship to the high administrative position which he now occupies. He has had thirty-one years' experience in this largest and oldest banking institution in the country. His period of office has been signalized by various brilliant successes. He has laid all the other leading banks of Canada under obligation by assisting to shape the course of legislation regarding banks and banking. In the eyes of shareholders he achieved a yet greater triumph when he captured from all competitors, for the Bank of Montreal, the Financial Agency in England.

Among the chief officers of the bank to-day are E. S. Clouston, general-manager; H. V. Meredith, manager; A. MacNider, chief inspector and superintendent of branches; and A. Buchanan, assistant-superintendent of branches.

Perhaps no better augury of Canada's future can be adduced than is implied in the wonderful growth and prosperous condition of this, her greatest monetary institution. The history of her commerce is in a measure the history of the Bank of Montreal; her fortunes have been involved with those of this great bank, whose stability assures the safety of so much of her enterprise, and so many of her best undertakings.

ALFRED A. THIBAudeau.

A COMMERCIAL house of long standing and high repute, comes in time to have a personality of its own, and by the weight of a lofty character and spotless fame, to wield an influence in the community, similar to that exerted by some individual of high integrity and unquestioned repute. In the Old World, the large mercantile firms, retaining their name and style through successive generations, have, for the student of life, an interest peculiarly their own. Sons succeed their fathers as partners in the business, and the aged clerk, grown grey in the service, yields his place to the son whom he has trained to an accurate performance of its duties. Not only the regulations, but the traditions of the house are thus preserved. Such houses of business, safe, honorable, and worthy, and represented by a hereditary line of sagacious business men, are not unknown in this comparatively new country.

Early in the history of our largest and oldest cities, firms were founded which live to-day, pursuing the course established by those pioneer merchants, whose spirit of enterprise seems to have been so strikingly mingled with a wise caution, and the thought which ensures success. Chief among such French Canadian mercantile houses is that of Thibaudeau Bros. & Co., the Montreal branch of which is in charge of the subject of this sketch the Old World firms to made, and which present an unchanged front, the dates only from 1879. country do not favour a seeming, and the business & Co. is the lawful sequence, bore the name of Robertson of the house changed however, true to its origin—gressing in public esteem. has been said that they Scottish caution with French is one of the leading com-

Mr Alfred A. Thibau- in the firm, and a most house, which, in its present world, may well be termed a young man, he has at- which is the outcome of those great qualities which respect of the public. He Board of Trade, Ex-member

is now President of the Montreal Wholesale Dry Goods Association. The well earned prominence which is the reward of others in advanced old age has been awarded to Mr. A. A. Thibaudeau before he has reached middle life.

He is a native of Quebec and a son of Hon. Isidore Thibaudeau, who directed the parent house, which, in Quebec, bears the name and style of Thibaudeau Freres et Cie.

In politics, Mr. Thibaudeau is an out and out Liberal, a strong supporter and firm believer in the platform adopted by the Ottawa convention of the Liberal party held in that city in 1893. He is also thoroughly convinced that a less restrictive policy than that pursued by the present government would be more beneficial to the people generally, and have a tendency to advance the interest, welfare and prosperity of the Dominion. His ideas are advanced, and he evidences a heartfelt interest in the fortunes of his less successful countrymen.

It is a hopeful sign for the toiling masses to have men of wealth, influence, and high social standing, such as Mr. Thibaudeau, viewing what is commonly called the "labor question" in a broad, liberal spirit, and being ever ready to extend a helping hand and to aid, morally and materially, every effort that is conducive to their welfare and advancement. The influence of such men cannot be over estimated in this the latter part of the nineteenth century, when social rumblings are so prevalent throughout the civilized world.



Unlike, in one respect, to which allusion has been from century to century present name of this house The vicissitudes of a new continuance of outward of which Thibaudeau Bros. originated in 1811, and then & Co. The name and style several times, remaining, al policy, and steadily pro- Of its original founders it most happily combined energy. To-day the firm cerns in the Dominion. deau is the principal partner worthy representative of a position in the commercial illustrious. Although quite tained to that prominence high ability united with command the favor and is an active member of the of the Council thereof, and

LIEUT.-COL. F. C. HENSHAW.

Of those who, born and bred in Montreal, have a special claim upon the regard and interest of their fellow-citizens, none enjoys a wider popularity than that awarded to Lieut.-Colonel F. C. Henshaw, whose unostentatious and honourable character has won an enduring fame. Canada records, with justifiable pride, many a name, grown illustrious in her service, while yet the hero or patriot who bore it hails as his native land some beloved and remembered soil in the Old World. Canada has been to most of her famous sons an adopted country. In Colonel Henshaw we have, however, a native born Canadian, all whose sentiment and associations cling about the romantic history and maple-clad landscapes of the Dominion.

Colonel Henshaw, as he is always styled, being best known as a Colonel of the Victoria Rifles, was born in Montreal in 1852, and was educated at Rev. Edward Woods' School, Collegiate Institution, London, C.W., and at the High School. The colonel is proud of the fact that his father is also a native of Canada, having been born in St. Paul street, Montreal, in 1822, when the city limits extended to Fortification lane, on the north side of which (or where Craig street now is) was a large creek running in an opposite direction to the River St. Lawrence. His grandfather was a hardware merchant and importer of this city in the early part of this century. Mr. Henshaw Henshaws of Lancashire, eminent land owners at the One of his ancestors, Wm. was killed at the taking of the First of England re-ancient honors, and it took

Whilst he is by nature one who has warmly at country at large, he is realer, and no project which therance of civic interest

Colonel Henshaw successor of an elaborate coal and for a time carried on an however, he later relin-saying that a man of his be much called upon by fel-minent positions, in which might be exerted for the numerous offices, the duties heavy demands upon his

He is a very highly es-of Trade, as well as chair-

Dominion Rifle Association. He is a director of the Richelien and Ontario Navigation Company; a director of the Standard Drain Pipe Company; president of the Citizen's Gas Control Company; a director of the Montreal Street Railway. He is ex-president of the Victoria Club, also ex-president of the Junior Conservative Club and the St. James Club. He is ex-chairman of the Victoria Rifle Reserve Association, and hon.-president of the Canadian Amateur Skating Association.

Colonel Henshaw holds the position of Consul for the Argentine Republic, and Vice-Consul for the Republic of Uruguay. The multifarious duties of his numerous offices are ever discharged in a manner to reflect credit upon the organization or government whose interests are thus entrusted to him, and he has had many opportunities of endearing himself to the persons with whom he must come in contact. Such uniformly speak of him with grateful appreciation. Owing to his kind and genial disposition he is possessed of the faculty of making everybody feel happy with whom he comes in contact, and he has endeared himself to the working classes for his many acts of generosity toward them.

Quite recently, Colonel Henshaw has come prominently before the Montreal public in connection with the movement to commemorate the memory of Sir John A. MacDonald by the erection of his statue in one of the city squares. The credit for the successful issue of the project is largely due to the tact, forethought, and hard work of Colonel Henshaw, who, whilst assisted by so many of Sir John's loyal admirers, has been easily first among those who desire the credit for the accomplishment of so praiseworthy a purpose.



can trace his family to the England, who were pro-close of the fifteenth century. Henshaw, head of the family, Liverpool in 1644. James stored the family to its the motto *Esse quum Videri*. and habit a public man, heart the welfare of the most emphatically a Mont-has for its object the fur-ever lacks a friend in him. ceeded his father as proprie-trade at Windmill Point, extensive business which, quished. It goes without ability and popularity would low-citizens to occupy pro. his important influence good of others, and he holds of which make, sometimes, time and ene.gy.

teemed member of the Board man of the Council of the

THE BELL TELEPHONE COMPANY OF CANADA.

It is impossible in the face of the increased comfort and ease of modern life, to doubt the real value of the contributions which progress is making to the scene of human happiness. The Genius of Civilization is searching out every nook and corner of our daily lives. It is the glory of our era, and the boast of our genera-



BELL TELEPHONE CO.—HEAD OFFICE AND MAIN EXCHANGE, MONTREAL.

tion that the principles of science are no longer the exclusive province of the philosopher, but, grasped by the practical intellect of the business man, are applied with ever increasing frequency to the uses of daily life. Commercial enterprise and scientific research are hand in hand to-day, and the results of their coalition pervade our paths, rendering rapid and pleasurable what otherwise had been stow and difficult of achievement.

The Bell Telephone Company of Canada, by the mere fact of its existence, affords striking evidence of the practical character of scientific research in recent times. It becomes doubly so when we consider the short period of time which has elapsed since its commencement, and the triumphal progress which has characterized its history. This corporation, which is to-day among the most important and flourishing in Montreal, completed last April the fifteenth year of its existence, having been organized in 1880. While its growth has been rapid, its stability has always been assured. Few among the older institutions of Canada's commercial metropolis can rival in enterprise or in brilliant success this comparatively recent industry, which in its purpose and

methods belongs to peculiarly and emphatically to the present day. It supplies a want unknown to a former generation, but yet it needed no years of waiting and urging to reconcile its existence to a conservative public. The want was instantly recognized, and from its commencement the Bell Telephone Company of Canada has enjoyed an uninterrupted run of prosperity. Its history hints, not of past centuries of vicinities, and fighting against opposing tides, but of a future of scientific practice scarcely dreamt of as yet, of which this enterprise may be called the earnest.

When the Bell Telephone Company of Canada was, in 1880, incorporated by Act of Parliament, it had a capital of \$500,000. The Company was organized by Mr. Charles F. Sise, who became the first vice-president and managing director. Under his able management the company consolidated the whole telephone business of the country under one head, by the purchase of the interests of the Dominion Telegraph Company, which had originally exploited the Bell telephone patent, and of the Montreal Telegraph Company, which had had control of the Edison patents.



BELL TELEPHONE CO.'S BUILDING, HAMILTON.

The late Mr. Andrew Robertson was the first president, Mr. Sise, vice-president and managing director, and Mr. C. P. Sclater, secretary-treasurer; Mr. Hugh C. Baker had the active management of the business in Ontario, and Mr. L. B. McFarlane in Quebec, and the Eastern Provinces. That the company was peculiarly fortunate in its officers, is too well known, and proven a fact to require statement. Their record has been a brilliant and a creditable one. Executive ability, prudence, and a commendable boldness of enterprise have marked all their policy. They were, each and all, men whose ability and worth was well recognized, and in their connection with the telephone company they have increased the public confidence in them. It cannot be doubted that while the invention controlled by the company was one of great public utility, and that success was primarily owing to this, yet in no small measure was their prosperity due to the ability of the management, and to the wisdom of the conservative policy followed, of maintaining in the service of the company the men who knew most about the business. In pursuance of this system the same names which were prominently connected with the company at its commencement still retain their respective positions, excepting only that at

the death of Mr. Andrew Robertson, who was first president of the company, Mr. Sise was naturally selected to be his successor, and Mr. Geo. W. Moss was elected vice-president, which position he retained until his death in May, 1895.

The first annual statement of the company showed about 2,000 subscribers scattered over the Dominion, and so phenomenal was its subsequent growth that in 1885 this number had increased to 10,000, while the capital had reached the sum of \$1,200,000. Three years later the number of subscribers was given at 15,000, and the business of the enterprise had assumed dimensions which more than justified the hopes of its founders, who thus saw the realization of their scheme in a much shorter period than the most sanguine had deemed possible. The business in the maritime provinces had increased to an extent requiring local management, and local companies were therefore formed in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, 1,500 subscribers being at once transferred to these companies.

In 1890, we find the list of subscribers to The Bell Telephone Company alone increased to 20,000, and the Stock and Bond Account to \$2,000,000.



BELL TELEPHONE EXCHANGE BUILDING,
COR. MOUNTAIN & ST. CATHERINE STS., MONTREAL.

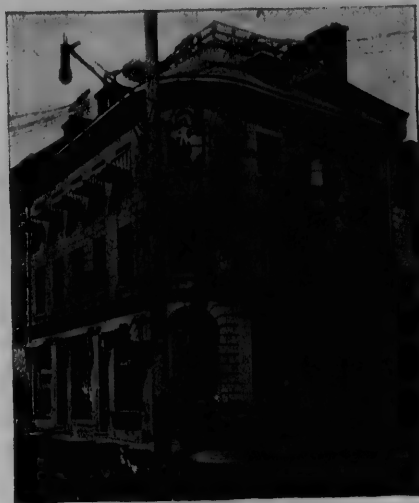


BELL TELEPHONE CO.'S BUILDING,
OTTAWA.

The prosperity of the company was now assured, and its stability unquestioned. Its dealings had assumed immense proportions, and the company speedily recognized the necessity of owning the buildings in which its large offices are situated, and in addition to erecting a large factory on Aqueduct street, Montreal, has put up for its use buildings in several of the more important Canadian cities. These are: one at the corner of St. Catherine and Mountain streets, Montreal; in Hamilton, on Hughson street; in Ottawa, on Queen street; in Quebec, on the corner of St. John and Palace streets, with a branch office at St. Roch; and on Temperance street, in Toronto. At the same time, they also acquired the ownership of the premises which they occupy in some of the smaller places.

The new building of the company, at the corner of Notre Dame and St. John streets, is in every respect a credit to the city and the enterprising company who occupy it. The basement and ground floor of the building is of terra cotta ashlar, and the upper stories of New Jersey pressed brick with terra cotta trimmings. The dimensions are 108 feet on St. John street, 35 feet on Notre Dame, and 98 on Hospital, and it is six stories in height. On the ground floor are located the local offices of the company, the long distance telephone rooms

and waiting rooms. There are two elevators framed and decorated with wrought iron, and operated by electricity with a speed of 350 feet per minute. The first and second floors, and a part of the third, are rented as offices, etc. On the third floor is also situated the battery room, chief operator's room, offices, etc. On the fourth floor is the company's workroom. This room is 32 feet wide and 128 feet long, with windows on four sides as well as large skylights. Here are located the switch boards and other apparatus connected with the telephone business. This apartment is 18 feet in height, and, on account of its splendid location, is one of the finest of its kind on the continent of America. It should also be stated that off from this room is a recreation and lunch apartment for women operators; this room is 32 feet by 18 feet, and again a locker room of the same size, containing a steel locker for each operator. There is also a drying room for the benefit of the employees, where their clothing is dried when necessary. There is a splendid bath room, where a number of baths are placed in the most modern fashion for the comfort and convenience of the operators. Besides the messengers' room, located in the basement, there is a large room containing the distributing frame, in which all the wires of the different telephones are assembled, and carried from here to the operating room on the fourth floor.



BELL TELEPHONE COMPANY'S BUILDING,
QUEBEC.

The boilers which are in the basement are of the safety water-tribe pattern, and are 200 horse power. There are two dynamos of 1,000 16-candle capacity, and special attention has been paid in perfecting the heating appliances of the entire building, fresh air being drawn from the outside, passed through steam cells and forced by large steam fans to every room in the edifice. The air is washed and freed from all impurities before being delivered, and a uniform temperature is maintained at all times. This is the first time in Canada that the system has been used in heating a building such as the new Bell Telephone.

The structure is fire-proof, and for this reason the entire building is constructed of steel and burnt clay, which has been proved to be the only thoroughly fire-proof material adapted for building purposes.

The building is thoroughly equipped with the most modern fire escapes and appliances.

The immense factory on Aqueduct street, in which all their supplies are manufactured, deserves more than a passing glance. It is a brick building of two stories, and contains under one roof, a mechanical department, consisting of a machine shop, fitted up with the newest and best machinery and appliances, a finishing room, a brass foundry, a nickel-plating room, a buffing room, a blacksmith's shop, a polishing room,

an engine room and a carpenter's shop. In all of these may be seen the best and most ingenious contrivances for the perfecting of mechanical art. In the machine shop there are numerous automatic machines. An up-to-dateness characterizes the fittings and method throughout, as is perhaps peculiarly suitable in the workshop of an industry which has to do with the latest discoveries of modern science. The stores department gives some suggestion of the immense amount of material used in supplying the needs of this ever-increasing business. The building which contains the two enormous boilers by which the machinery of the factory is run, is separate from the main building. Everywhere is apparent the careful and accurate application of the newest principles of science and practical results. The Company in every detail of its working is fully abreast of the times.

At the close of the year 1894, the number of instruments in use by this Company in the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec and the Northwest exceeded 30,000. The Companies in which it is interested, and with which it is allied in the Maritime Provinces and British Columbia raised the number of subscribers at that date to over 35,000, requiring over 34,000 miles of wire on 7,600 miles of poles for the service. In



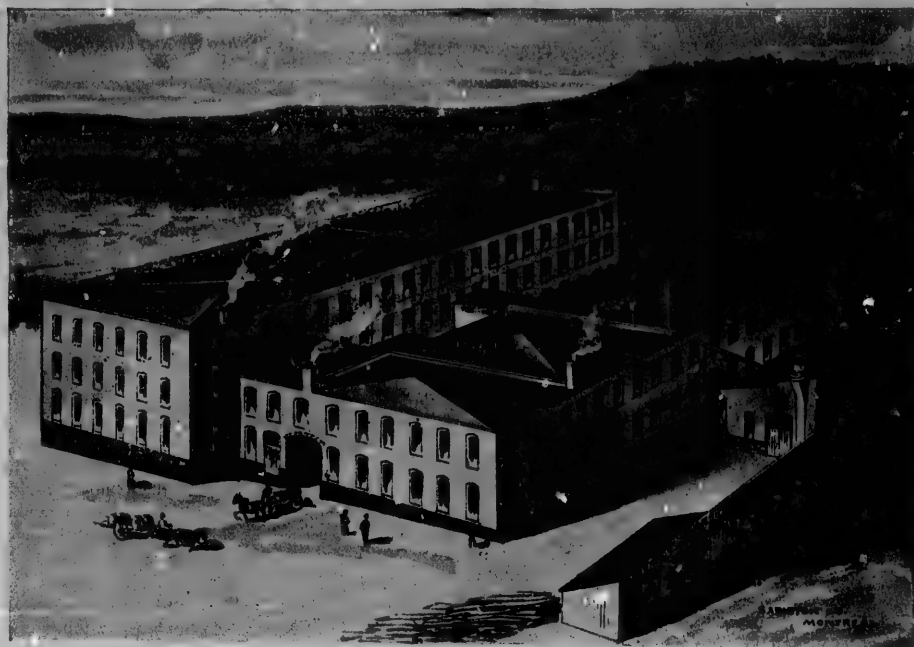
BELL TELEPHONE COMPANY'S BUILDING,
TORONTO.

addition to this, the Bell Telephone Company has 14,000 miles of wire strung on 6,000 miles of poles, exclusively for its long distance work, connecting the various cities, towns and villages of the Dominion. It gives constant employment to about 1400 men and 600 women.

During 1894 this company transmitted the almost fabulous number of 69,838,650 messages for its patrons.

The present directors of the Company are C. F. Sise, President; Robert MacKay, Vice-President; W. H. Forbes, Hon. J. R. Thibault, John E. Hudson, Robert Archer, W. R. Driver, Hugh Paton, and Charles Cassils.

Of the genial and popular President, it can justly be said that to his zeal and energy, no less than to his exceptional business ability, are owing the happy fortunes of the Company, with which he has been identified from its commencement. He possesses in a marked measure that faculty for government and supervision, which implies a masterly attention to detail, and always ensures to its gifted possessor a useful, as well as a fortunate career.



FACTORY OF THE BELL TELEPHONE CO.—AQUEDUCT ST., MONTREAL.

Robert Mackay, who has just been elected vice-president to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Moss, is a member of that admirable family whose generosity and frequent benefactions have made their name a talisman in Montreal. The Mackay Deaf and Dumb Institute at Westmount is one of many monuments to their liberality.

The other directors are all men of large business experience, who have attained eminence in their respective spheres of action, and taken all in all it would perhaps be difficult to find a happier choice than those representative men who constitute the Board of Directors of the Bell Telephone Company of Canada.

It may be observed that during the existence of the company there has never been the slightest cause for trouble on the part of their employees. Like all large concerns accidents have occurred occasionally when men have been maimed or killed, but all such cases have been amicably settled without the intervention of the courts, and therefore avoiding long and tedious litigation.

In conclusion, it may be said that the Company has spared no expense to make the surroundings of their employees as pleasant and cheerful as possible; and also the wages paid have always been as liberal as the business would warrant.

F. X. PLOUFFE, M.D.

In this democratic country we meet with numerous instances of men who by indomitable pluck and perseverance have surmounted the pecuniary obstacles that obstructed the progress of their early youth, and succeeded in acquiring sufficient education to enable them to become members of the higher professions, and eventually to attain the most prominent distinctions in their peculiar sphere.

Such has been the experience of the subject of this sketch, who has shown himself possessed of the most manly qualities of endurance, patience and perseverance.

Dr. F. X. Plouffe was born on April 25th, 1861 at "Bord a Plouffe," St. Martin, County of Laval. His father and grandfather were staunch patriots and took an active part in the troubles of '37 and '38. He was one of a family of twenty-one, a number of hostages to fortune, which prevented him from being able to receive the thorough education which it was his ambition to possess. He had early shown a decided inclination for study, and at fourteen years of age, tired of the monotony and inferior instruction dispensed at the village school, he eagerly sought for information as to the best means of obtaining an entrance into one of the colleges. He secured an introduction to the Rev. Father de Lavigne, the director of the Montreal College, who was so impressed with the forward manner of the testing his ability as a student should be allowed to through a thorough course

The young man naturally obtained the desired result owing to the prosecution of in the College eight years to his tutors.

Now came the turning point which caused the greatest annoyance to him to pursue the marked out for himself. He decided on medicine, a decision which was opposed by his friends, who finally abandoned him to his own devices.

Bereft of sympathy and position in the Post Office, he lived in the most meagre quarters necessary funds required

He then enrolled himself in the University of Coburg, where enduring great hardships, he procured the necessary sustenance, and denying himself any of the ordinary relaxations which are assumed to be requisite for the maintenance of natural vigor and health.

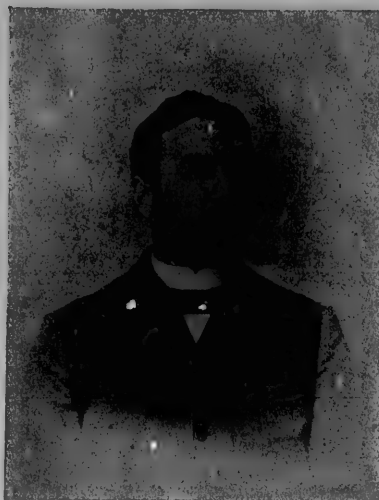
In 1892 he graduated from the University and shortly afterwards commenced the practice of medicine. He established himself at the corner of St. Urbain and Pine Avenue, where he is gaining a large and lucrative practice.

His intention is to visit the principal centres of Europe, where he will have an opportunity of perfecting his knowledge in medical science. In order to attain this result,—the highest point of his earlier ambition,—he is straining every nerve and debarring himself of many needed relaxations in order to acquire the funds necessary to accomplish his purpose. He has the best wishes of his many friends for his eventual success.

Dr. Plouffe has in numerous instances shown his deep sympathy with the laboring classes in their struggle for the amelioration of their position, and has always been in accord with them in every measure tending to their benefit. His earnest endeavors on their behalf is much appreciated by the masses.

He has warmly identified himself with the movement in favor of early closing, as in the course of his medical experience he has become acquainted with the many evils attending the long hours of labor so often required by employers, and he is thoroughly convinced that long hours of toil is more detrimental to the health of clerks and others who are compelled to remain in stores late at night than can be conceived by the community.

Dr. Plouffe married Miss Marie Louise Malboeuf, of Cote des Neiges, by whom he has two children.



VIEWS OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.*

CLINTON, October 11, 1859.

DR. EDWARD WALLACE:—*My Dear Sir:*—I am here just now, attending court. Yesterday, before I left Springfield, your brother [Dr. Wm. S. Wallace] showed me a letter of yours, in which you kindly mention my name, inquire my tariff views, and suggest the propriety of my writing a letter upon the subject. I was an old Henry-Clay-Tariff Whig. In old times I made more speeches on that subject than on any other. I have not since changed my views. I believe yet if we could have a moderate, carefully-adjusted protective tariff, so far acquiesced in as not to be a perpetual subject of political strife, squabbles, changes, and uncertainty, it would be better for us. Still, it is my opinion, that just now the revival of that question will not advance the cause itself, or the man who revives it.

I have not thought much on the subject recently; but my general impression is that the necessity of a protective tariff will ere long force its old opponents to take it up; and then its old friends can join in and establish it on a more firm and durable basis. We, the old Whigs, have been entirely beaten out on the tariff question; and we shall not be able to re-establish the policy until the absence of it shall have demonstrated the necessity for it in the minds of men heretofore opposed to it. With this view I should prefer to not now write a public letter upon the subject. I therefore wish this to be considered confidential.

I shall be very glad to receive a letter from you.

Yours truly,

A. LINCOLN:

* *Lawson's Life of Lincoln.*

FREE TRADE.

BY PROF. EMILE DE LAVELEYE.*

A MERCHANT on being asked by the French statesman, Colbert, what was the best way of favoring commerce, made answer: "Leave it alone;" and this reply of his has become the watchword of the supporters of freedom of trade, or, as it is sometimes called, free exchange. What, in fact, can be more natural than to allow everyone to buy and sell where he can do so most advantageously whether in or out of his own country?

To raise a revenue, a State is still justified in imposing custom dues on the importation of certain foreign goods, though the tax is a bad one; but to establish these duties under the pretext of protecting national industries is an iniquitous measure, fatal to the general interest. By forcing consumers to buy from the protected manufacturers at higher prices than they would elsewhere have to pay, the gross injustice is committed of taxing one class for the benefit of another. It is in this that the system of protection consists. If it be said that the object is to favor labor, and consequently laborers, a double error is committed.

Error the First.—The aim of economics is not to increase but to diminish labor. If I can obtain a yard of cloth from a foreigner by means of one day's work, it is contrary to this aim to force me to spend two. The eagerness to increase labor without augmenting production has been well called "Sisyphism," for it chains humanity to efforts that lead to no result, just as Sisyphus was compelled to roll to the summit of a hill a stone that always fell back again. The goal we should pursue is the increase of commodities and diminution of toil.

Error the Second.—No service, but an injury, is done to workmen in thrusting them into manufactories by force of law and in spite of nature. Thus in the case of Italy it is a thousand pities that the custom house should have snatched workmen and workwomen from their open air tasks in the lovely country with its genial climate, to chain them in gloomy work-shops for twelve or fourteen hours a day to the monotonous movements of machines.

Free trade by applying to whole peoples the principle of the division of labor, assures them all the benefits it can bestow, and thus greatly increases their welfare. If in a family each member is employed at what he can do best, it is clear that the total product, and consequently the individual shares, will be as great as can be attained. On the contrary, if each is forced by legislative restrictions to devote a part of his time to a labor for which he has no aptitude, each and all will be worse off. Apply this principle to nations, and it is plain that when each country devotes its energies to the task which its nature most favors, not only will it bring to the international market the maximum of products obtained with the minimum of toil, but the welfare of humanity at large will be increased in proportion to the increase of the productivity of each country's labor.

A man who, in the wish to be self-sufficing, should constrain himself to manufacture everything he needed, food, clothing, furniture, and books, would plainly be extremely foolish, nor is a nation that imitates him any wiser.

If the soil of my farm is sandy, and so better suited for rye than for wheat, the least laborious way of obtaining wheat is, not to cultivate it myself, but to ask for it in exchange for my rye of those who have a clay soil. This plain truth demonstrates the absurdity of the system of protection which would oblige me to grow wheat even upon sand.

The upholders of protection make the further objection that foreigners will inundate us with their produce. Such a fear is quite idle, since foreigners will not give us their goods for nothing, but will be willing to take ours in payment. Commerce is always an exchange of produce against produce. So much imported, so much exported. If imports exceed exports, all the better; the foreigner is paying us a tribute, and we shall have more to consume. If exports exceed imports, all the worse, it is now we who are paying a tribute. We, however, are touching on the difficult question of the balance of commerce, the discussion of which we defer to a later paragraph.

Protectionists are anxious to sell much and buy little, in order that the foreigner may be forced to pay the

* *Elements of Political Economy.* New York, G. P. Putnam's, 1884.

excess of his purchases in cash. These aims involve a great contradiction. It is clearly impossible for the different countries in their exchanges with one another always to sell more than they buy.

The principal cause of industrial progress in a country is, as we have seen, the competition between manufacturers, each of whom strives to improve, and, above all, to cheapen, his fabrics, in order to extend his business. The more widely competition is extended, the greater will be everyone's profit. Do not, therefore, limit it by the frontiers of a state, but extend it from country to country. Monopoly begets sloth, and protection, routine. On the other hand, the manufacturer who is forced to carry everything to perfection in endeavoring to keep his hold of the home market will conquer that of the world.

A railroad uniting two countries facilitates exchanges. Custom dues on foreign goods impede them. Yet the same men at the same time support two policies, the results of which are thus completely diverse. That Frenchmen and Italians, after spending nearly two millions sterling in boring a tunnel through the Alps, can place their custom-house officers at each end to destroy in a great measure by the dues they exact the usefulness of this marvel of engineering, is an inexplicable contradiction.

To be consistent, a protectionist should demand the destruction of machines, for machines and free trade have as their common result the diminution of the labor necessary to obtain an object. Thanks to machinery I obtain my coal at less expense ; thanks to the stranger I again obtain it cheaper ; the result is identically the same. If we exclude the foreigner we should also break our machines ; and thus increase in both ways the amount of labor requisite to obtain a given quantity of coal.

Capital turns spontaneously to the most lucrative field of employment. Protection diverts it from these to the less lucrative, compensating it for the difference by a tax levied on consumers, by the amount of which tax production is again diminished.

As their last argument protectionists maintain that for objects of the first necessity, such as corn and iron, a country should be independent of foreigners, lest, in case of war, it should find itself without the means of nourishment or defence. There is no example, however, of a people having lacked necessities in war time, and to-day there is even less cause for fear than formerly. In the first place railways facilitate revictualling ; in the second, since the Treaty of Paris, in 1856, the ships of neutrals may continue to transport the goods of belligerents. The complete blockade of a state is thus more impossible than ever ; and it is the height of folly to inflict a permanent and certain harm in order to avoid a distant and more than improbable one.



THE MERCHANTS' BANK.

THE Merchants' Bank of Canada, which to-day stands, as to amount of paid-up capital and surplus, second in the Dominion, has had a comparatively brief, though most interesting and eventful history. Its organization dates no further back than 1864, when, with a capital of \$100,000, it commenced operations in Montreal under a Board of Directors, every one of whom were men of note in the commercial and financial affairs of Canada. They were Hugh (afterwards Sir Hugh) Allan, Damase Masson, Edwin Atwater, Hon. Louis Renaud, Hon. John Young, H. H. Whitney, and Harrison Stephens.

It was at first a local bank, and obtained at once a large share of the business of the city of Montreal, and gradually increased its capital for the purpose of carrying it on. The first annual report, issued in the second year of the bank's existence, showed that the assets had been increased to \$395,592, while a dividend of 8 per cent. was paid. During the years immediately following, a gradual but most satisfactory increase was shown, when, on the occasion of the failure of the Commercial Bank of Canada, its whole assets were purchased by the Merchants' Bank. A very large extension of the sphere of operations took place. It then became a Bank with a large number of branches, and at once issued new stock and called up a large amount of capital to meet the new conditions.

London and New York, Canada amounted to the two. In 1875, the paid-up capital amounted to \$8,102,046, the Rest had the net profits amounted to 292. The Bank, however, and the story of its growth since that time is full of years that followed 1874 commercial depression, suffered heavy losses throughout the country, atmosphere was clouded, about that the Bank was its stock fell downwards, proving of none effect, were called, resulting in president and the general Hamilton was at once Mr. John McLennan, standing these changes, drift towards a point have been inevitable. It most happily, Mr. George Hague, formerly cashier of the Bank of Toronto, was invited to assume the general management of the Bank.



Offices were opened in while its branches in large number of forty-up capital amounted to reached \$1,850,000, and to the large sum of \$834,000. However, was to know how it met and surmount interest and value. There were a season of severe and the Merchants' Bank Insolvencies multiplied and the whole financial Word was whispered in peril, and immediately Efforts to stem the tide meetings of stockholders the resignations of the manager. The Hon. John elected president, and vice-president. Notwithstanding the Bank continued to where a stoppage would be at this juncture that,

Mr. Hague was very widely known as a leading Canadian authority on bank management, and his acceptance of the proffered position largely restored the public confidence in the Merchant's Bank. From the time of his assuming the control of its affairs, the Bank has pursued a most conservative policy. The capital account was cut down to \$5,500,000, all bad and doubtful debts were written off, and things were placed as speedily as possible on a permanent basis of prosperity.

The capital of the Bank to-day is \$6,000,000 paid up, with the great Rest of \$3,000,000. The Bank has assets of \$23,531,000, and its current loans and discounts average over \$18,000,000. That this gratifying state of things must be the result not only of exceptional ability and masterly executive talent, but also of years of patient labour will readily be granted. The whole internal economy of the Bank had to be overhauled. Unprofitable branches were closed. Large operations in which the Bank had engaged, in connection with the first Quebec Provincial loan, and also with the gold market of New York, were brought to a termination; while zealous care was exercised in preserving such business as was sound and valuable. The task of reformation and reconstruction was a very heavy one. Insolvent estates amounting in the aggregate to many millions had to be dealt with in the way of settlement. For the reduction of capital already alluded to authority had to be obtained from Parliament. The storm which engulfed so many enterprises was over at last, however,

and when, in 1881, the country began to recover prosperity, the Merchants' Bank had completely gained public confidence, and Mr. Hague was able, at a meeting of stockholders, to state that, notwithstanding the severe process of pruning and weeding that had been necessary, the Bank had retained all the important business that had formerly belonged to it.

The Bank's history during the last fourteen years has been one of ever-increasing vigour and prosperity. It has always enjoyed a great popularity among active business men, and its deposits average over \$10,000,000. Interest at most favourable rates is allowed on savings bank accounts and deposit certificates; a general banking business is transacted, drafts and letters of credit being issued on points in Europe, China, Japan and other foreign countries. It has a chain of agents and correspondents throughout Great Britain and the United States, and has remarkable facilities for the making of collections.

In 1881, Sir Hugh Allan was again elected president, and held the office until his death in 1882. At the same time, Mr. Robert Anderson was elected vice-president. Andrew Allan, Esq., the brother of Sir Hugh, is to-day president of the Merchants' Bank. He is well known as one of Montreal's great capitalists. His policy in all business matters is conservative, and his election to the position of president has been of great service to the Bank. Mr. Hector Mackenzie is vice-president. The following gentlemen, along with the president and vice-president, form the Board of Directors: Messrs. Robert Anderson, H. Montagu Allan, Jonathan Hodgson, J. P. Dawes, John Cassils, T. H. Dunn (of Quebec), and Sir Joseph Hickson. It always been the good fortune of the Merchants' Bank to secure to itself the talents and consistent efforts of singularly able and efficient men, and certain it is that no more thoroughly representative board than the above could have been formed. And throughout the whole system the same happiness of choice is to be observed. The Montreal Branch is in charge of Mr. J. S. Meredith as manager. Of his great practical experience in banking affairs, too much cannot be said. He is ably assisted by Mr. A. J. Ferguson.

The splendid building occupied by the Montreal Branch is situated on St. James street. It was built in 1871-72, and contains the head offices of the Bank. It is one of the city's finest buildings, and its internal arrangements are perfect.

Perhaps no better testimony to the stability and large resources of Canadian business enterprise can be found than that implied in the history of the Merchants' Bank of Canada. The checking of its progress while it might be said to be still feeling its way, the drawback of newness not yet overcome, its triumphant emergence from the heavy and threatening cloud that for a while obscured it, and its subsequent and safe progress upwards, form a narrative which reflects honour upon a country whose business men were of a stamp to weather such a storm, saving not only themselves but the credit abroad of institutions, the prosperity of which involved that of so many thousands of their countrymen. The pluck, no less than sagacity needful for steering successfully such an institution through a stormy season of financial disaster, merits the applause which the able conduct of the Bank's management most certainly won.

The following is a list of the branches and correspondents of the Bank:—

<i>Branches in Ontario and Quebec:</i>		
BELLEVILLE,	KINCARDINE,	PRESTON,
BERLIN,	KINGSTON,	QUEBEC,
BRAMPTON,	LONDON,	RENFREW,
CHATHAM,	MONTREAL,	SHERBROOKE,
DRESDEN,	MITCHELL,	STRATFORD,
GALT,	NAPANEE,	ST. JOHNS,
GANANOQUE,	OTTAWA,	ST. THOMAS,
HAMILTON,	OWEN SOUND,	TORONTO,
HESPELER,	PRESOTT,	WALKERTON,
INGERSOLL,	PERTH,	WINDSOR.

<i>Branches in Manitoba:</i>	
WINNIPEG.	BRANDON.

<i>Bankers in Great Britain:</i>	
LONDON.	
GLASGOW.	
EDINBURGH AND OTHER POINTS.	
THE CLYDESDALE BANK (LIMITED,) LIVERPOOL.	
THE BANK OF LIVERPOOL (LIMITED.)	

<i>Agency in New York:</i>	
52 WILLIAM ST.,	Messrs. Henry Hague and John B. Harris, jr., Agents.

<i>Bankers in United States:</i>	
NEW YORK—	American Exchange National Bank.
BOSTON—	Merchants' National Bank.
CHICAGO—	American Exchange National Bank.
ST. PAUL, MINN.—	First National Bank.
DETROIT—	First National Bank.
BUFFALO—	Bank of Buffalo.
SAN FRANCISCO—	Anglo-California Bank.

<i>Newfoundland:</i>	
BANK OF NOVA SCOTIA.	

<i>Nova Scotia and New Brunswick:</i>	
BANK OF NOVA SCOTIA.	
MERCHANTS' BANK OF HALIFAX.	

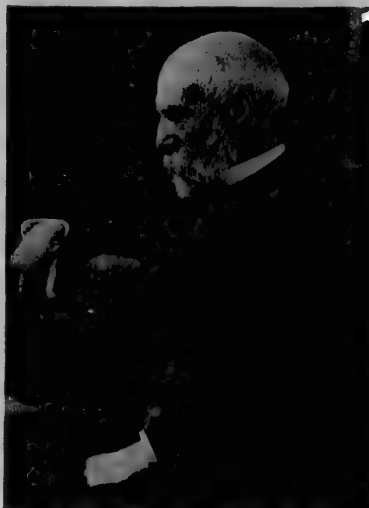
<i>British Columbia:</i>	
BANK OF BRITISH COLUMBIA.	

A general banking business transacted. Letters of Credit issued available in China, Japan and other foreign countries.

GEORGE HAGUE.

The prosperity of a Bank and the degree of public confidence which it can command, depend so largely upon the ability and policy of its manager, that a man occupying such a position must always excite our interest, and to an extent our admiration. That to Mr. George Hague, the general manager of the Merchants' Bank of Canada, a double share of the popular regard is due, is a fact too frequently acknowledged to need repetition. He stands, in a manner, apart, distinguished not more for his remarkable sagacity in banking affairs, than for the active and practical interest which he takes in educational, charitable and religious institutions. His opinions are heard in ecclesiastical courts with the same respect and attention which they receive in financial circles. His personal history, reflecting as it does, the sentiments and views of a many-sided and largely sympathetic nature, is of unusual value.

Mr. Hague is a native of Rotherham, Yorkshire, England, and is of a family which has held a farm in that neighborhood from the days of Charles I. During his childhood and youth, the remarkable aptitude which he showed for arithmetical and mathematical studies led to the choice of banking as a profession, and, in 1840, he was placed at the age of fifteen in the office of the Sheffield Banking Company. There he remained during a period of eleven years, in connection with a firm of had large enterprises on sent out by them in the district, and afterwards to their office. In 1856, after of this firm, Mr. Hague became a profession, and accordingly Toronto, where he gradually became accountant in the Head Office, Coburg, Ont., and ultimately Toronto. It was during his tenure of the Bank of Toronto, that he made a strenuous effort to introduce the American system of currency into Canadian banking, in which he was the prominent part, that the withdrawal of the measure was finally due.



tenancy of his responsible Hague retired, without any to the anxieties of banking. too youthful and too valuable than two months he desired leisure, and assume

After fourteen years position in Toronto, Mr. Hague intended returning again. He was, however, at once able to be spared, and in was induced to forego the management of the Merchants' Bank of Canada. It is beyond doubt that he was led to take this step by a sense of the obligation attaching to the ability, which he was conscious of possessing, to save the Merchants' Bank at a great crisis. His labour in the re-adjustment of the affairs of the Bank, patient and persevering, lasting through a number of years, and involving constant self-sacrifice have already elsewhere received notice.* Suffice it here to say that owing to his good management and untiring energy the clouds at last rolled away, the credit of the Bank was established, and public confidence fully restored.

Mr. Hague's contributions to the press on financial subjects have been carried on during thirty years, in the shape of leading articles to financial journals. His addresses at annual meetings of the Bank have been widely read and commented on, both in Canada and the United States. His addresses to bankers in the United States, at the annual meeting of their associations, have met with marked approval, and have been circulated widely in pamphlet form. He has been able in his connection with the Young Men's Christian Association and similar agencies, to prove the warm interest he has ever felt in Canadian young men. He was for many years Chairman of the Congregational College of Canada, and has been for some years one of the Governors of McGill University. He was a member of the Imperial Federation League, and has always taken a deep interest in the development of Canada as an integral portion of the British Empire. Mr. Hague, though in advanced years, is still active and vigorous, giving constant attention to the duties of his responsible position.

*See article "The Merchants' Bank," page 110

MR. LAURIER'S EXPOSITION OF LIBERAL PRINCIPLES IN WINDSOR HALL,

MONTREAL, JAN. 22ND, 1895.

MR. LAURIER was received with much enthusiasm. After the applause subsided, he said :—I am here to present the policy of the Liberal party. Rather, I will not say that I am here to present the policy of the Liberal party, because that policy is well known, but I am here to defend and advocate the policy of the Liberal party in this city of Montreal, above all other places. It has been the joke—the old, but stale joke, in which Conservative orators and editors have found an unfailing source of enjoyment—to say that the Liberal party have no programme and no policy. It is an old, stale joke, as pointless as it is old and stale. (Laughter.) Why, the policy of the Liberal party has been declared in the solemn convention which sat in Ottawa in June, 1893, and which was called to determine that policy. And the Liberal party then determined what its policy would be not only on immediate questions, but upon all those questions which even remotely would affect the Canadian people. That policy is outlined in the book I have before me. That policy comprehends the following subjects :—

First, condemnation of the fiscal policy of the Conservative Government, together with their declaration of the policy of the Liberal party on the same subject.

Second, reciprocity of trade with our neighbors.

Third, repression of corruption and malfeasance in office.

Fourth, economy in the administration of public affairs.

Fifth, the right and duty of Parliament to investigate all corruption and malfeasance in office.

Sixth, the selling of public lands to actual settlers and not to speculators.

Seventh, the franchise—the equitable distribution of Parliamentary representation.

Eighth, temperance.

This is the whole programme of the Liberal party. It would be impossible, in the short time at my disposal, to go over this whole subject minutely or even generally ; but above all those questions there is one which is of the utmost importance. That is the trade policy. Upon that question, I need not tell you that we stand at the very antipodes of the Conservative party. (Cheers.) The Conservative party believe in protection. All their hope is in protection. The Liberal party believe in free trade on broad lines such as exist in Great Britain, and their immediate object is a revenue tariff—a tariff to be derived from customs, but which will levy no duties, except for the purposes of revenue ; a tariff which will neither hurt nor favor any class to the prejudice or favor of anybody ; a tariff whose aim and purpose will be to derive the maximum benefit from the minimum taxation. (Applause.)

Now, I have spoken frankly. As I told you a moment ago, I do not forget that I am speaking here in Montreal. I do not forget that Montreal has been a protectionist city, but I would not be worthy the position I occupy in the ranks of the Liberal party, if I were in the city of Montreal to hold any language different to that which I have been accustomed to speak in the rural parts of our community. (Applause.) As I stood among the farmers and settlers of Manitoba, so I stand to-day upon the platform of the Liberal party, so I stand here upon the platform which was recorded upon that very question, and which is plainly set forth in the resolution adopted by the convention of which I spoke a moment ago. That resolution reads as follows :—

We, the Liberal party of Canada, in convention assembled, declare :—

“ That the customs tariff of the Dominion should be based, not as it is now, upon the protective principle, but upon the requirements of the public service ;

“ That the existing tariff, founded upon an unsound principle, and used, as it has been by the Government, as a corrupting agency wherewith to keep themselves in office, has developed monopolies, trusts, and combinations ;

“ It has decreased the value of farm and other landed property ;

“ It has oppressed the masses to the enrichment of a few ;

“ It has checked immigration ;

“ It has caused great loss of population ;

“ It has impeded commerce ;

"It has discriminated against Great Britain ;

"In these and in many other ways it has occasioned great public and private injury, a" of which evils must continue to grow in intensity so long as the present tariff system remains in force ;

"That the highest interests of Canada demand a removal of this obstacle to our country's progress, by the adoption of a sound fiscal policy, which, while not doing injustice to any class, will promote domestic and foreign trade ; and hasten the return of prosperity to our people ;

"To that end, the tariff should be reduced to the needs of honest, economical, and efficient government ;

"That it should be so adjusted as to make free, or bear as lightly as possible upon the necessities of life, and should be arranged so as to promote freer trade with the whole world, more particularly with Great Britain and the United States ;

"We believe that the results of the protective system have grievously disappointed thousands of persons who honestly supported it, and that the country, in the light of experience, is now prepared to declare for a sound fiscal policy ;

"The issue between the two political parties upon this question is not clearly defined ;

"The Government themselves admit the failure of their fiscal policy, and now profess their willingness to make some changes ; but they say that such changes must be based only on the principle of protection ;

"We denounce the principle of protection as radically unsound and unjust to the masses of the people, and we declare our conviction that any tariff changes based on that principle must fail to afford any substantial relief from the burdens under which the country labors ;

"This issue we unhesitatingly accept, and upon it we await with the fullest confidence the verdict of the electors of Canada."

Now, perhaps, I may be told : Oh, Montreal is not the place to attack protection. Perhaps, if there should be here some enthusiastic, over-zealous protectionist, he may say : Do you not know that protection has done wonders for Montreal ? Do you not know that during the last decade, from 1881 to 1891, under a protectionist regime, the population of Montreal has increased 39 per cent ? Yes, I know that ; I read it only the day before yesterday in the *Montreal Gazette*. (Laughter.) Do you not know that the population of Montreal was 150,000 in 1881, and is now 215,000, and an increase of 39 per cent ? I know all that. I do not at all forget it, but I would like to reply to anyone who uses this language, that if that increase in the population of Montreal is to be claimed as a benefit of protection, protection has wrought a very different result in the country at large. The increase of population in the country at large has not been 39 per cent as in Montreal, nor 30 per cent, nor 25, nor 20, nor even 15 per cent. The total increase of population has been only 11 per cent, while in the previous decade it was 17 per cent. If you believe that protection increased the population of Montreal 39 per cent, you must admit that, on the other hand, it has had the result of diminishing the rate of increase in the country at large from 17 down to 11 per cent. Do you believe, if the result of protection be to develop the cities and to depopulate the country, that such a system is desirable even for the cities ? Do you believe, if the result of protection be to enrich the cities and at the same time to impoverish the country, that the prosperity of the cities can be of very long duration ? Cities cannot thrive by themselves ; cities can thrive only when the country thrives. (Applause.) I grant you that for a time, perhaps, if the country does not thrive, the cities may prosper ; but in the long run, if the country is not flourishing, the cities must decay as well. In the face of such a result, to pretend that it would be a benefit for Montreal to keep to the policy of protection, which has had the effect of decreasing the rate of increase in the country at large, would be simply to repeat the operation of the old woman who had a hen which laid a golden egg every morning, but who killed the hen and so lost everything. (Laughter.) There is only one sound, profitable, desirable, patriotic system. It is that which can be conducive to the prosperity—not of one class or section—not only of the cities, but of all classes of the cities, and the country at large ; and judged by that test, the policy of the Government stands condemned.

Let me now examine this proposition a little further. We all agree that Montreal is the great commercial metropolis of Canada. No one can dispute that, and I am glad to see here, in this great metropolis, so many of our friends from Ontario. I am glad to see here, first and foremost, my old friend, Sir Oliver Mowat—the veteran of veterans—(loud cheers) ; one who has fought all his life against monopolies, trusts, and combines. (Renewed cheering.) I am glad to see here also my friend, Mr. Paterson—a manufacturer and one of the most eloquent of men. (Cheers.) I am glad to see my friend, Mr. Edgar, who has always stood up in the cause of freedom. (Applause.) And last, though not least, I am delighted to greet my friend, Mr. James Sutherland, the shepherd of our flock. (Laughter and applause.) They represent here the great Province of Ontario, and I am sure they will all agree that the title must be conceded to Montreal of being the great

metropolis of Canada. In the next place I will assert this, and it is, perhaps, a statement to which no one will take exception, that Montreal has no interests which are distinct and separate from the rest of the country. The interests of the country are the interests of Montreal, and the interests of Montreal are those of the country at large. (Renewed applause.) In the next place I will assert, that so far as Canada is concerned, leaving aside the city of Montreal—separating, if it were possible, Montreal from the rest of the country—the system of protection has been the bane and the curse of Canada. The bane and the curse of Canada I repeat. Now, there is an easy way to decide this. In a young country like Canada, the increase of population is the best test of its prosperity. We have millions of acres of land to which we invite the population of the whole world. We have not been satisfied with a normal increase of population, but have been making efforts to bring population from abroad; and for the last twenty years, ever since Confederation has existed, we have lavished hundreds of thousands of dollars every year in order to bring emigrants from abroad. We have stationed agents in all the great cities of Europe, and flooded every market place and fair with books, pamphlets and reports, showing the advantages of Canada. In 1878, the Conservative party, not satisfied with the progress which had been made, adopted the policy of protection. Upon what grounds? Upon the ground that it would give labor for everyone born in Canada, and to the thousands who would come in from abroad. That was the object. But when the census came out in 1891, what was the result? It showed that whereas, from 1871 to 1881, in a period of great commercial depression, our population had increased by 17 per cent, yet under the system of protection, from 1881 to 1891, the rate of increase was reduced to 11 per cent. More than that. The records show that the increase of population in Canada was about half a million souls, and yet during those ten years, from 1881 to 1891, we had brought into the country, according to the records of the Department of Agriculture at Ottawa, no less than 800,000 immigrants who had landed at Quebec and Montreal to settle upon our waste lands. The census returns showed that our population had not increased to the extent of that 800,000, but only a little over half a million, so that we had lost the whole natural increase of Canada, besides 200,000 or 300,000 of strangers we had brought into the country. Was there ever such a record? We read in the Good Book that the avenging angel was sent once to slay the first-born of a wicked people, but our census returns show that the whole progeny of our people was slain—that the whole natural increase of the population was swept away. Under such circumstances is there a man who will not say that, in a country which has so many advantages to offer to immigrants, protection has been a bane and a curse? I will go further. I will take the proposition and look at it from the point of view of Montreal alone. I said a moment ago that the interests of Montreal are the interests of Canada. They cannot be set apart. What conduces to the prosperity of one must conduce to the prosperity of the other; and if a protective tariff has not conduced to the prosperity of Canada, I have no hesitation in saying that it cannot contribute to the development of Montreal. That proposition is well borne out by the facts. What was the population of Montreal in 1881? It was 155,237, and in 1891 it was 215,650, or an increase of 39 per cent. So far so good. I want to discuss this question fairly, and in order to put it squarely before you and bring it home to the judgment of everyone, I will give you what the population of Montreal was in 1871 and what it reached in 1881. In 1871 it was 107,225; in 1881 it had increased to a little more than 155,000, but for the purposes of comparison we must deduct 15,000 increase caused by the addition to the boundaries of the city. So that the increase in the boundaries of Montreal was from 107,225 in 1871 to 140,747 in 1881, or 31 per cent; whereas, in the following decade it was 39 per cent. Any protectionist may tell me—"here is the justification of protection, here is the vindication of our policy—that the greater rate of increase was due to the development of commerce through the large manufacturing establishments which were treated and maintained by protection." That reason, however, is not borne out by the facts. It would be true if the population of workmen in Montreal employed in manufactures had progressed in the same proportion as the total population of the city itself. But such is not the case. And perhaps I may astonish a good many here when I tell them that the development of the working population has not been in the same ratio as the development of the whole city. Here are the figures, and those figures I find in a very good book, the report of the Montreal Board of Trade, published in 1892, the semi-centennial report; and this report, I may say in passing, was printed at the Montreal *Gazette*, which I am sure ought to give it a certificate of orthodoxy in the hands of sound orthodox protectionists themselves. (Laughter.) The figures are to be found in a table inserted at page 91. In 1871 there were manufactures in the city of Montreal, and in those factories workmen were employed. That was ten years before the National Policy. What was the number of men employed in 1871 in the manufactures of Montreal? It was 21,877; in 1881 that number increased to 33,355, an increase of 11,538, or 53 per cent. That was under a revenue tariff. What are the figures under protection? In 1881, just a year after the inauguration of the National Policy, the number of men employed in the manufactures of Montreal was

33,355, and in 1891 it had increased to 38,562, an increase of 5,207, or an increase of 16 per cent. Thus, under protection, there was an increase of 16 per cent, as compared with an increase of 53 per cent under a revenue tariff. Here is a demonstration as incontrovertible as possible, that the increase in the population of Montreal is not due to the development of manufacturing establishments in that city. But that is not all. Let us look at the investment of capital. In the year 1871, the amount of capital invested in manufactures in Montreal was \$11,101,031; in 1881, after ten years of revenue tariff, that amount had increased to \$32,185,691, an increase of \$21,000,000, or 190 per cent, under a revenue tariff. What was it under protection? In 1881 the amount invested was \$32,185,691; in 1891 it was \$51,212,133, an increase of \$19,000,000, or 60 per cent. This shows a decrease in the amount of capital invested in manufactures from 190 per cent in the previous decade to 60 per cent in the decade under protection. Now, I am told that a good deal of the capital subscribed and appearing in the figures of the Board of Trade, during the regime of protection, was watered and not solid. (Laughter.) But even if it were watered, it does not detract at all from the argument. I believe that nobody ever said that the investment of capital, from 1871 to 1881, was watered, whereas, in the other period, they say it was. What is evident is that the development of manufactures from 1871 to 1881 was a healthy development under a healthy system; whereas, the investment of capital from 1881 to 1891 was unhealthy, under an unhealthy system, and a good deal of it was wasted and is lost: and stock-holders, in order to prevent greater loss, resorted to combines, restricted productions, closed up their establishments, reduced the number of hands, and to-day what do you see in this city? You have thousands of men clamoring for work; you have hunger in thousands of homes, and private charity is unable to satisfy all the demands for relief. Public charity has to be organized. And all this under a system which professedly taxes the people in order to give work to all who are willing to work. Can there be such a delusion, such a policy, such a mockery? And yet in the face of such results, there are men to-day who still cling to that system. This is the system which they say has made Montreal the commercial metropolis of Canada. But I say here, on my reputation as a public man, that the record shows that if your city has developed, it is not protection which has developed it to such a degree. What is the cause which has made Montreal the great metropolis it is? The cause is to be found in her wonderful geographical position. Why, the position of Montreal is unequalled in the world. Go into any of the ports of Europe or America and you will not find such a city as Montreal, which is at the same time a maritime and an inland city. New York, Boston, and Baltimore are maritime cities, but they are maritime cities according to the orthodox fashion. They are on the coast. But Montreal is a sea harbor, one thousand miles from the coast, in the interior of the continent. And while Montreal is at the end of ocean navigation, it is at the same time at the head of that immense system of inland navigation formed of the great lakes which constitute the interior of this continent, and the like of which is not to be found in any part of the world. Look at the position of Montreal, seated at the head of inland navigation. Montreal seems to have been intended by the Creator Himself to be the distributor of wealth between Europe and America, and it is that position which has made Montreal what it is. It may be that my Tory friends will not be convinced. I would not wonder if it were so. There may be some doubting Thomas, but to that doubting Thomas let me put his finger in the wounds, and let me give him a page of the history of Canada. I say that to-day Montreal is the great commercial metropolis of Canada, but it was not always so. Why, it is within the memory of men of the present generation that Montreal was, not very many years ago, simply a provincial town. What made her the great metropolis that it is to-day? Why, Sir, in former times the River St. Lawrence flowed by its front as it flows to-day, but Montreal was not a sea harbor. Between Montreal and the ocean there were there the shoals of Lake St. Peter, and that was a barrier, because the ships coming from the sea could not anchor in the harbor of Montreal. Two men there were in Montreal in those days to whose sagacity, energy, and perseverance, Montreal owes much of what she is to-day. Sir, these two men ought to have their statues in the public squares of Montreal. They ought to have their images and portraits upon all the walls of our public buildings. Those two men were the Hon. John Young and Sir Hugh Allan, and to them it is that Montreal owes its present position. (Cheers.) It was to the efforts of the Hon. John Young that the shoals of Lake St. Peter were taken out; it was owing to his repeated agitation that at last, in the year 1850, the first stroke was made to deepen the channel and to make Montreal a sea harbor; and three years afterwards, in the year 1853, the first steamer came from Europe and landed its cargo in the city of Montreal, and from that moment Sir Hugh Allan came in with his steamers, plying between the harbor of Montreal and Europe, carrying the products of America to Europe and the products of Europe to America. From that day Montreal went forward by leaps and bounds. The population of Montreal in 1850 was just 57,000. In 1861, after Montreal had become a sea harbor, the population was 90,000, an increase of 66 per cent—an increase unprecedented since or before, an increase unapproached since that time, but an

increase to be approached and to be surpassed even when the channel has been deepened to thirty feet, as it will be by and by, and when the largest steamer can come into the harbor of Montreal, and when the people of Montreal have realized the great possibilities of their harbor and taken a stand against any shackles being put upon trade. (Cheers.) Then, Sir, there will be another increase in the population of the city of Montreal. My words may carry, perhaps, no conviction, but let me give you the opinion of an American authority, Mr. Edward O'Brien, who was Commissioner of Navigation in the American Government under the Presidency of Mr. Harrison. Some few weeks ago he published an interview in the *New York Times*, reviewing the whole question of transportation between America and Europe, and in this interview he speaks of your city and harbor of Montreal. I invite the closest attention of you all to this. The facts which I give you are not new, I am sure, but they are presented in a condensed form. The facts are not new, but in war it requires one thousand bullets to kill a man, and it may require a thousand repetitions of the same argument in order to destroy some fallacy, commercial or otherwise. Mr. O'Brien speaks as follows:—

"From Liverpool to New York is 3,040 miles. From Liverpool to Montreal is 2,700 miles. From New York to Duluth (via railroad to Buffalo) is 1,437 miles, and via the Erie Canal 1,517 miles. From Montreal to Duluth, via the St. Lawrence, is 1,354 miles. From Liverpool to Duluth, via Montreal and the St. Lawrence, is 4,144 miles, which will shortly be unbroken deep-water navigation. From Liverpool to Duluth, via New York, is 4,477 miles, or 4,577 miles, according as the route be via the New York Central railroad or the Erie Canal to Buffalo. Montreal is 250 miles nearer Liverpool than New York is, and 83 or 163 miles nearer Duluth. From Liverpool to Duluth the route, via Montreal, is 333 or 413 miles shorter than the route via New York.

"Let us translate these distances into dollars and cents, and see what commercial advantages the Canadians will realize on the completion of the great eighty-three-and-a-half million dollar water route from the great lakes to the seaboard."

That is the advantage of Montreal. Now, perhaps someone may tell me—"Oh, we can have all this with protection;" and some will say—"It will come to the same thing whether we have protection or not." I say that you cannot have the benefit of that trade to the ocean unless you have return cargoes coming from Europe—(cheers)—and there is nothing surer than that protection destroys maritime trade. There is no fact that is surer than this. It has been proven by the experience of all nations. Let me again quote the authority to which I alluded a moment ago, that is the authority of Mr. O'Brien, upon the result of protection upon the American maritime trade:—

"We have lost the ocean-carrying trade. We once carried a large trade for other nations, and the bulk of our own exports and imports in our own vessels. But our shipping has dwindled both actually and relatively compared to other nations, until we now depend almost entirely on foreign ships. Since 1858 the proportion of our foreign trade carried in our own vessels has dwindled from seventy-three and seven-tenths to twelve and two-tenths per cent."

That has been the result of protection upon the American traffic. Now, what has been the result of a different system and a different policy? In England, for instance. Let me give you the figures. I have given you the result of protection on the result of the American maritime trade, and now let me give you the result of the freedom of trade upon the English maritime trade. I quote from an article recently published in the *Boston Globe*, and very carefully prepared:—

"Fifty years ago England controlled one-third of the carrying trade on the high seas, but now it controls more than one-half, or literally possesses 55 per cent of the carrying power of the world. Its tonnage of vessels increased from 3,310,000 tons in 1840 to 10,230,000 tons in 1892, or 210 per cent. It has increased steadily with a greater ratio of gain than that of any other country the past ten years, or from 5.3 in 1882 to 56.6 in 1892."

That is the result, Sir, of a different system. Now, I ask every man here how best will Montreal take advantage of its situation? Montreal, situated as she is, at the end of ocean navigation and at the head of inland navigation, how best will she take advantage of her situation? Will she best take advantage of it by a system of protection which will kill her maritime trade, or will she not best take advantage of it by removing the shackles from trade as far as it is possible to remove them? Now, Sir, I may be told again—"Do you pretend that if we were to abolish the system of protection that our manufacturers can live in the city of Montreal?" Why, Sir, I certainly do pretend it. (Cheers.) I contend that the manufacturers of Montreal can do better under a revenue tariff than they can do under protection. (Cheers.) I myself am not much of a manufacturer; I am a lawyer, and perhaps my advice will not be taken with relish by those who are not of the same mind as myself, and who may say to me—"Oh, it is all very well for you to say so, but what do you

know about the business?" Well, I have read something. I do not manufacture, but I have read something, and every morning I read the *Montreal Gazette*, which is something. (Laughter.) You need not laugh, gentlemen. For my part, I read the *Gazette* every morning. I breakfast upon it. (Laughter.) I will not say that it is absolutely wholesome food, but I am like Mithradites, I am poison-proof, having read the *Gazette* for so many years. I have read in the *Gazette* the statement that if you remove protection, raw materials would no longer be free. I say that if we were to have a revenue tariff, raw materials would be free. Raw materials are not free to-day under the protective system. There are certain raw materials which are free. Wool is free; thank heaven they have not thought of taxing it. Cotton is free also; but is iron free? Cotton is a raw material, and wool is a raw material for certain manufactures. But there are two articles which are raw material of every manufacturer, and these articles are coal and iron, and are they free? If you have a revenue tariff the object will be to develop the country, and all raw materials should be free under such a tariff. (Cheers.)

I think I can give you, gentlemen, a little illustration taken from the history of England as to the effect of protection and non-protection. I do not pretend to be a manufacturer myself, as I told you, but I have read something of the recent history of Europe, of England and of Germany, for instance. Germany is a country after the heart of the Canadian protectionist. Germany for the Germans is the motto there, and you know Prince Bismarck, who was in power for a great many years, never did things by halves. About the year 1880 Prince Bismarck was in power, and they had an infant industry in Germany at that time. In 1880 that was not exactly an infant industry in years, for it was already seventy years old, but it was still an infant industry. In 1880 Prince Bismarck undertook to give still more protection to the refiners of beet root sugar. He put enormous import duties on sugar, but not satisfied with that, he placed upon the export of German sugar to foreign countries enormous bounties. Now, I admit that this was a very serious matter for the English refiners of sugar. There was German sugar coming in competition with their own, and on account of the taxes imposed on the German people, it was sold to Englishmen actually lower than the cost of production.

England is a free trade country, but human nature is everywhere the same, and so the English refiners went to the Government. The Government at that time was in the hands of Lord Salisbury. It was a Conservative Government, but, in England, Conservatives and Liberals are all alike, they are all free traders. No one would dare to avow himself a protectionist in England. (Cheers.) The English refiners put their complaint before Lord Salisbury. They represented that they could not compete with the German sugars, which were actually sold to the English mechanic at a price below the cost of production. Well, Lord Salisbury said in effect to this deputation of refiners—"Do I understand you gentlemen? You tell me that in consequence of the export duties paid by the German people to the refiners of German sugar that this German sugar is sold to-day to the English people at a price lower than the cost of production. If that be the case," said Lord Salisbury, "if the English people to-day are supplied with sugar at a price below the cost of production, I do not think the English people have very much to complain about after all." (Cheers and laughter.) "And if the German taxpayers will tax themselves in order to supply the English consumers with sugar, I think the English consumers can stand it just as long, and perhaps longer, than the Germans." (Cheers.) Lord Salisbury dismissed the sugar refiners with these remarks.

But what took place in England when the sugar refiners got this answer from Lord Salisbury? The sugar refiners did not pine; they did not lament; they did not weep. But as true Britons they went to work and they converted their machinery so as to make it useful for the manufacture of jams and preserves, and they bought the cheap German sugars to manufacture them. (Cheers.) They not only bought the cheap German sugars produced at the expense of the German taxpayers, but they converted them into jams, and jellies, and preserves, and they sent them back to Germany at a great profit to themselves. (Cheers.) It is the sound, common sense of England, which takes its sugar, wherever it comes from, at the lowest possible price, or the policy of Germany which, in order to maintain its infant industries, takes the money out of the pockets of the German people and puts it into the pockets of the German sugar refiners. There is no use pursuing that argument any further, the policy of England is the common sense one. (Cheers.)

I now come to another argument which seems to weigh very much upon the minds of our Conservative friends, although I must say that it has never disturbed my head. The Conservatives do not sleep soundly about it, and they ask you every day in the *Montreal Gazette* and the *Empire*, and all the Conservative papers, and all the Conservative orators say to you—"Oh, if you are going to reduce the tariff, how are you going to get a revenue?" That is the question which seems to bother the Conservatives very much, and during the peregrinations of the Ministers before the death of Sir John Thompson, while they were visiting the Maritime Provinces, Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper amongst others, laid before the people of those provinces a most dole-

ful picture as to what was to happen to them if we had a tariff for revenue purposes only. He told them that in such an event we would have a heavy taxation upon man-servants and carriages, and dogs and guns, and in general language he pictured to them all these great hardships which I am sure must have sent a thrill of horror into the souls of his listeners. Gentlemen, it is not necessary to make any very serious argument to answer that question. We are asked how are you going to raise a revenue, and the answer is simply this—"By having a tariff for revenue." The tariff that we have in Canada to-day is not a tariff for revenue, and I could quote, to prove this, the words of Mr. Foster, the Finance Minister, which he gave utterance to not later than last session of Parliament. Mr. Foster then said:—"The other and third method is the protective tariff, by which you select a certain list of articles, and place upon them certain rates of import, with a view to raising a certain amount of money for the services of the country, but more especially with this view, that while you raise the amount of money that is necessary for the country, you must stimulate the development of the resources of the country." Gentlemen, you have it here plainly stated that the object of the tariff is not to raise a revenue. That is only an incident of the protective tariff, but the first object of the tariff is to raise money so as to develop our infant industries; that is to say, to raise taxes not to place in the treasury, but to place them in the pockets of certain favored classes and individuals. (Cheers.) Now, reverse the principle. Have a tariff not for protection, but simply for revenue, and it is quite clear—nay, it is as plain as can be—that with a lesser amount of duties, you will have more revenue than you have under the present system at the present time. (Hear, hear.) If it is my good fortune to visit the Maritime Provinces, I will be able to tell to the audiences that were addressed by Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper that they need not fear the taxes on their man-servants, or their carriages, or their guns, or their dogs; though I must say in passing that it would not break my heart at all if we were to make the swells who can afford carriages and man-servants, and guns and dogs, contribute their due share to the revenue of the country.

Now, Sir, there is another and a very serious question. I have told you that our object is to have a customs tariff based upon the principles of revenue only. How is this to be effected? As far as the settlement of that question goes, we are met between two extreme sets of men. We are met by those who fear that we will go too far, and by those who fear that we will not go far enough. We are met by those who fear we will move too rapidly, and by those who believe we will be over-cautious. Those who dread that we will move too rapidly would simply have us to go skin-deep in reform, to stand perfectly immovable as it were. On the contrary, those who fear that we will not go far enough, would have us simply to go practically into a revolution. What, between immovability on the one side, and revolution on the other, there is another sound course, and that is the true principle of reform; the principle of British reform, which moves gradually step by step, and which never flinches until the end has been achieved. (Cheers.) I refer to that British reform which was very careful not to inflict unnecessary hardship on any industry, and in the language of the resolution which I have quoted to you—"While not doing injustice to any class, will promote domestic and foreign trade, and hasten the return of prosperity to our people."



THOMAS AHEARN.

THE capital of the Dominion, admirably situated as it is on the Ottawa, one of our noblest rivers, possessed of great natural advantages, with an immense flow of water, by which a large quantity of machinery is constantly kept in motion, converting the product of the forest into lumber of every description, with the legislative halls of the nation, the most magnificent buildings in the country, triumphs of architectural skill, erected on cliffs overlooking the majestic stream steadily rolling on towards the sea, and the assembling annually of the representatives of the people, contribute largely to the prosperity of the city.

But the great strides that have been made within the last ten or fifteen years are due to the fact that Ottawa numbers amongst her citizens some of the most active, enterprising and energetic men in Canada, who have shown to the business men of older cities that many things that appear difficult at the outset can be easily accomplished. Foremost amongst them is Mr. Thomas Ahearn, the subject of this sketch, who was born in that city, June 24th, 1855, and received his education in the University of Ottawa in that city. He early manifested an inclination for the pursuit of electrical knowledge, and for some years was an operator in the office of the Montreal Telegraph Co., at Ottawa, and in the Western Union Telegraph Co., at New York.

He was known as one of the most expert operators in the country. Upon the formation of the Bell Telephone Company of Canada, position of manager at pressure of other business short time ago, but retains company in the capacity of

In 1882 he formed a partnership with Mr. Y. Soper, under the name of Soper, to whom is due the success that he has attained as the electrical engineer. Both young men, with a practical knowledge of electricity, and a vision of the great future, they have made a success of every thing they have touched, and find themselves at an early age possessed of large fortunes and enviable business reputations. They have executed satisfactorily of the Dominion.

To their efforts is due the fact that Ottawa has to-day the finest and best operated electric street railway in the world, and that way in the world, and that lights are in operation in that city, a showing that is characterized by the leading electrical journal of the United States as unequalled. No other proof should be necessary of the pluck and ability with which Mr. Ahearn is possessed than that the Ottawa Electric Street Railway Company, of which he is managing-director, was the first to undertake the very hazardous task of keeping the tracks clear of snow, so that electric cars might be run during the winter months, an accomplishment which was considered impossible in this northern country, and it is safe to say that the problem would be yet unsolved were it not for the foresight and sagacity of the talented managing-director of the Ottawa Electric Street Railway Company. So that not only does the city of Ottawa owe a debt of gratitude to Mr. Ahearn and the Ottawa Electric Street Railway Company, but the whole province of Quebec, and particularly the city of Montreal.

Mr. Ahearn's technical knowledge and attention to details have been of great value to the companies with which he is connected, and have resulted in the adoption of many practical and important electrical improvements. Mr. Ahearn is President of the Ottawa Electric Company, President of the Ottawa Carbon & Porcelain Company, Managing-Director of the Ottawa Electric Railway Company, and President of the Ottawa Car Company. And we have no hesitation in saying that it is owing to the scientific knowledge, great energy, foresight, pluck and extraordinary ability of Mr. Ahearn and Mr. Soper, is largely due the existence in Ottawa of so many flourishing enterprises and manufacturing industries. In private life Mr. Ahearn is a gentleman possessed of a kind and genial disposition, a true and sincere friend, courteous and manly in the extreme. He is an energetic and public-spirited citizen, and a man of whom the city of Ottawa should certainly be proud.



the most expert operators formation of the Bell Telephone Company. Mr. Ahearn accepted the position of manager at pressure of other business short time ago, but retains company in the capacity of the most expert operators formation of the Bell Telephone Company. Mr. Ahearn accepted the position of manager at pressure of other business short time ago, but retains company in the capacity of the most expert operators formation of the Bell Telephone Company. Mr. Ahearn accepted the position of manager at pressure of other business short time ago, but retains company in the capacity of the most expert operators formation of the Bell Telephone Company.

the fact that Ottawa has to-day the finest and best operated electric street railway in the world, and that lights are in operation in that city, a showing that is characterized by the leading electrical journal of the United States as unequalled.

WARREN YOUNG SOPER.

THE man who raises himself to a position of wealth and influence through his own individual exertions in this Canada of ours, where the large majority of our business men are so conservative in their methods, must be possessed of no ordinary ability and zeal.

The man who inherits immense wealth, or the proprietorship of an old established business, is deserving of no great amount of honor; but he, who by mere talent, perseverance and determination, carries out his own fortune and succeeds in becoming a potent factor in the manufacturing and mercantile community is worthy of the highest esteem and admiration of his fellow-citizens.

In years gone by men with small means had opportunities of starting in business and acquiring a comfortable competence, but in this age of huge combinations of capital and corporations of great magnitude, it may be easily understood how difficult it is, and what an unusual amount of energy and business capacity a man must be possessed of, to hold his own in the race for wealth, much less than to have acquired a large fortune at an early age like that of Mr. Warren Young Soper, who was born at Oldtown, Maine, March 9th, 1854, and whose parents removed to the city of Ottawa when he was four years of age, where he has since resided.

Mr. Soper received his education at the N. B. Webster Institute, Ottawa, dry goods establishment, after which he entered a where he remained for two years, when he commenced the study of telegraphy with his subsequent partner, Mr. Ahearn, ed that business. In Soper became an expert the year 1876 he became minion Telegraph Company. In both companies, Mr. Soper fully appreciated and rement from the Dominion he was publicly presented business men of Ottawa watch and chain, as a token recognition of his rare business retired from telegraphic his time and talent to the & Soper, which has since throughout Canada and the is prominently identified prizes and industries of



Mr. Soper with all the electrical enter- Ottawa, and holds many important and responsible positions, amongst which are Vice-President of the Ottawa Electric Railway Company, President of the Ottawa Land Association, Director of the Ottawa Car Company, and has for a number of years served as a member of the public School Board.

Aside from his connection with the firm of Ahearn & Soper, it is for his phenomenal business ability that Mr. Soper is principally remarkable.

To him and his partner, Mr. Ahearn, the credit is said to be largely due, of engineering the amalgamation of the old Ottawa horse car street railway and the Ottawa electric railway, by quietly, through agents, securing a controlling interest in the stock of the former.

Electricity was substituted for horse-power; various radical improvements were successfully carried out; and, what was formerly an eye-sore to the public and a loss to its shareholders, has now become part of one of the most perfected systems of street railway in the world.

Mr. Soper has always been prominently identified with any celebration calculated to advance the prestige of Ottawa abroad, and his indomitable energy and business capacity in these instances, have been of invaluable assistance.

A pronounced advocate of everything modern and up-to-date, there is in him an entire absence of that old-fogeyism which, up to a few years since, was the principal stumbling-block in Ottawa's onward and upward march of progress and prosperity.

COLIN MCARTHUR.

To the man who first introduced into the commercial life of our busy and thriving Province a new industry, the thanks of the public at large, as well as of the mercantile community, is especially due. He is the founder of a new enterprise, and to him his country must always be indebted.

The subject of this sketch is emphatically one of these pioneers of trade, as, previous to the year 1878, Canadians were compelled to depend upon the United States for wall paper of all kinds, a state of matters that caused no small amount of inconvenience in a land where the adornment and comfort of the home are matters of much consideration. In the above mentioned year, the enterprising firm of Messrs. Watson & McArthur founded an establishment in Montreal, known as the "Montreal Wall Paper Factory."

Mr. McArthur is a native of Glasgow, Scotland, where he was born in 1835. He was educated at St. Enoch's School in his native city, and was for sixteen years associated with the firm of Wylie & Lochead, wall paper manufacturers. For a good portion of that time he held the post of manager in their establishment. He was very frequently called upon to represent the interests of the Glasgow house in the United States and Canada, becoming thus well acquainted with business life on this side of the Atlantic, finally severing his connection with Wylie & Lochead, and settling in Toronto, where he remained for four years. In 1870, he removed to Montreal, and eight years later became a partner in the firm already alluded to.

From its very commencement the business was eminently successful. Mr. McArthur had brought out from Scotland skilled labour, such as could not at that time be obtained in this country. These were assisted by unskilled hands, natives opportunity afforded them their trade. In 1884, the ship, and the business was Messrs. Colin McArthur & the constitutional title of the nued to attend the opera-increasing enormously, a the high quality of the goods

The old premises were too small for the decreasing trade, so a removal present location at 15 Vol-which was formerly occupied handsome four-story struction, and is thoroughly appliances and machinery, requirement of this important trade. All kinds of wall paper are manufactured there in the most skillful manner, there are about one hundred hands constantly employed who are among the very best workmen on this continent, as none but competent men are retained by this progressive concern. The productions of this house have won for themselves a wide celebrity for their perfection both in quality and finish, and they compete favourably with those of any other wall paper factory on the continent. At all exhibitions, both local and foreign, where Mr. McArthur's goods have been exhibited, they have invariably secured first prizes. Amongst the foreign exhibitions in which he has upheld the honour of the Dominion as a manufacturing country, we may especially note those of London, Jamaica, Antwerp and Trinidad. From the above facts it will be observed that the Montreal Wall Paper Factory is of no inconsiderable magnitude and extent, and contributes materially to the city's maintenance of its important commercial position, as well as to the trade of the country at large.

It is needless to say that Colin McArthur & Co., through their superior ability, energy, enterprise and integrity, have retained the good will and respect of a constantly increasing circle of patrons.

That the Montreal Wall Paper Factory is a concern of which Montrealers may justly feel proud, goes without saying. It, from the first, deserved to succeed, and it has enjoyed success in no small measure.

Mr. McArthur is a member of the Board of Trade, and is there regarded deservedly as one of the mainstays of the industries of Canada, the country in which he has ever taken so deep and real an interest, lending the aid of his counsel and influence to every manufacturing industry that may arise.

It seems needless to add that Mr. McArthur is possessed of a hearty and genial nature which carries with it the power to influence, and readily win to conviction the minds of others. His influence has ever been used for the right, and not a few gratefully acknowledge the value of his advice and encouragement.



[FORMERLY MOLSON'S COLLEGE]

of Montreal, who thus had an of acquiring a knowledge of founders dissolved partner- thereafter conducted by Co., still retaining, however, factory. Prosperity contitions of the firm, the business result mainly attributed to offered to the public.

tuated on Grey Nun street, mands of the rapidly in- was made in 1884 to the tigeur Street. The building by Molson's College, is a ture, 225 x 45 feet in dimen- equipped with all modern as well as every other re-

HON. SENATOR MURPHY.

THE Hon. Senator Edward Murphy is one of those Irishmen in whom fervent a love of their native soil does not prevent a true and loyal attachment to the land of their adoption. Canada has known many such, and none in whom an ardent clinging to the traditions and associations of the home of their forefathers is joined with a more living interest in the life and weal of the Dominion.

Mr. Murphy was born in County Carlow, Ireland, July 26, 1818, and comes of a family which boasts an ancient lineage, claiming descent from Donal Mor (O'Murphy), a powerful chieftain during the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., under whom his estates were confiscated to the Crown.

At the age of six years, the subject of this sketch crossed the Atlantic with his parents, settling, in 1824, in Montreal, which has ever since been his home. Like the majority of successful men, he began his career at the age of 14, and after having served other firms he, in 1846, entered the employ of Frothingham & Workman, the large wholesale firm. There he remained steadily working his way from principal clerk until 1859, when he became a partner in the concern, and is to-day one of the senior members of that great establishment.

Mr. Murphy has been, throughout his commercial career, noted for the candid integrity of his dealings no less than for the acumen has made his way a steady port and influential position and has won for him the esteem which crowns his honoured old age.

But he was not to be tunes in quiet. His gifts fitness for sharing the burgovernment was recognized, to a seat in the Dominion since wielded an important porter of the Liberal-Con-

It is as a citizen of gifts of mind and heart have His high moral standing, generous impulses have en-Mr. Murphy has been a Temperance Society since He was elected president at pied that position without sent time. He has, through in the cause of temperance, fellow-countrymen and the other Irishman in Montreal.

nature has endeared him to his fellow-citizens of all creeds and nationalities. Mr. Murphy, while being a devout adherent of the church of his fathers, has never allowed his generous impulses to rest exclusively within the pale of his own denomination, and consequently he has been recognized by all races and creeds as a true-hearted, faithful Christian gentleman. He is a Knight (Chevalier) of the Sacred and Military Order of the Holy Sepulcher (Jerusalem). He has held numerous public offices, and still, in his vigorous old age, retains not a few of them. He was, in 1862, elected a Director of the City and District Savings Bank of Montreal, and in 1877 was made president of that institution, to which office he has been annually elected ever since. He is a Life Governor of the Montreal General Hospital, and also of the Montreal Branch of Laval University. For this last position he is peculiarly fitted, having by his scholarly attainments gained a reputation that associates his name with the learning and culture of those great educational centres which grace the Canadian metropolis.

Mr. Murphy's manliness and genuine force of character forbade that in the vicissitudes and stir of life in a new country, the ties of race and native land should be forgotten, and the claims of his countrymen upon his interest and sympathy ever found ready response from him. He has been a staunch Home Ruler all his life, and was instrumental in forming the first Home Rule Club in Montreal, founded in 1873, when the late Isaac Butt was at the head of the Irish Parliamentary party in the British House of Commons.

Mr. Murphy's sound principles, so well illustrated in his honourable life, his liberality, kindness of heart, and uniform courtesy, render him a citizen of which the greatest city of the Dominion may well be proud.



and accurate insight that progress towards the im- tion which he holds to-day, large measure of popular honoured old age.

left to achieve his own for- had attracted attention, his den and responsibility of and he was, in 1889, called Senate, where he has ever influence. He is a sup- servative party.

Montreal that Mr. Murphy's especially come into play- fine social qualities, and deared him to all classes. member of St. Patrick's its organization in 1840. an early date, and has occu- interruption up to the pre- his untiring energy and zeal done more to elevate his citizens generally than any His kindly and charitable

D. RITCHIE & CO.,

DOMINION TOBACCO, CIGARETTE AND SNUFF WORKS.

A Firm without an equal in the Dominion or elsewhere.

TOBACCO has become to be recognized as one of the essential necessities of every day life. There are those who rave and cry "sure death," "the most deadly of poisons," whenever tobacco is mentioned, yet statistics prove that tobacco-using people, the sailor, the farmer, the mechanic, and the population who believe in enjoying all the blessings of this mundane sphere are the ones who live the longest, die the easiest, and have more love for God and man than the parsimonious, would-be exotics of selfish pride who pose before the public as examples of morality, economy and fanaticism. In speaking thus broadly of tobacco, one must comprehend that it is not all tobacco that is sold by that name, neither is it all gold that glitters, but when a firm like D. Ritchie & Co., of Montreal, name a brand, or place a stamp on their tobacco, the wide, wide world can be as satisfactorily assured of its genuineness as if it were a rose grown by the Countess of Aberdeen, and vouched for as her especial pride. Take the names they have selected as brands—names admirably suggestive of the hospitality and generosity of the firm. "Old Chum!" just think how that cudgels up recollections of boon companionship! the quiet smoke, the piquant chess, at the fishing lake: the test of loyalty and friendship far deeper than "my friend," yet the mutual friend that binds these two "chums" together is the tobacco they use, and the password of "D. Ritchie & Co." as a surety that they are "old chums." Then comes the "Derby" resonant with races, jockeys, nobility, eclat, prestige, money and fame! "Old Virginia," the State that has given to the United States more Presidents than any other in the Union, that to this firm gives its choicest growths of tobacco, that like its fair beauties and splendid specimens of manhood, grows nothing under its "sunny clime" that has not the prestige and standing of being the best product of the world. And so on, one could enumerate the minutest details found in the business attractiveness, thoroughness and magnanimity of this firm, to show how keenly and sympathetically they are in touch with the broader sense of commerce, and as if to stamp their kindly appreciation of the organized classes, have recently had their big establishment organized, and are using a "K. of L." stamp upon some of their products.

The Dominion can boast of many large and important industries, but for the amount of capital invested, the number of hands employed and its extensive field of operation, the manufacture of tobacco stands unrivalled, and the firm of D. Ritchie & Co. is universally recognized as one of the most prominent. It was founded in 1862, and from a very small beginning it has rapidly assumed its present enormous proportions, which justly entitle it to its honorable position as one of the oldest and most reliable houses in Canada connected with the wholesale trade. Its extraordinary development is due to its being conducted on sound, honorable, and legitimate business principles superintended by the marked ability and energetic push of Mr. Mortimer Davis, the talented manager.

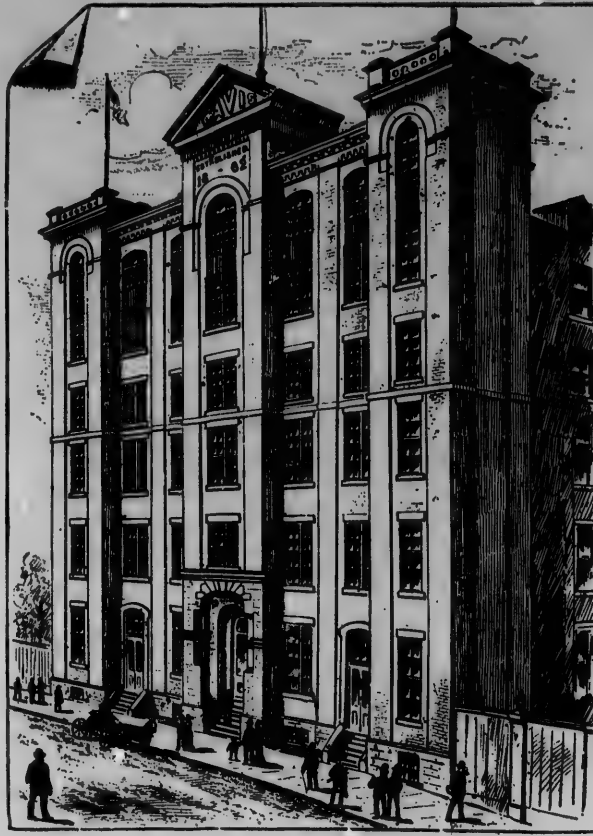
Not satisfied with an excellent local patronage, the firm soon obtained a high reputation all over Canada for goods of unsurpassed quality and uniform standard of merit, which soon developed into an enormous export trade to Great Britain and other European countries, and the West Indies, China, Japan and India. The extensive European trade has necessitated the opening of a branch establishment in London, England, and others in different parts of the world.

The firm own immense warehouses in Virginia, and being in direct communication with the leading planters, are enabled to obtain the finest growths of tobacco from that celebrated locality. The skill and judgment exercised in the selection of the best raw material is amply testified in the excellence of their various brands.

Messrs. D. Ritchie & Co. are the largest manufacturers in their line in the Dominion, over eighty per cent. of the cigarettes and fine cut tobaccos in use in the Dominion being made at their factories. Prior to 1885, they only manufactured tobacco and snuffs, but since then, their output of cigarettes has assumed a gigantic total.

The firm have erected spacious warehouses on Wellington and Ann streets, with offices on Cote street, and their extensive works are equipped with the most modern and improved machinery. About 400 skilled workmen are employed in the various departments, and the outside interests of the concern are well attended to by a large staff of keen, intelligent salesmen.

One great feature in connection with his employees is, that the men are all members of that great labor organization, the "Knights of Labor." Mr. Davis has always shown himself to be in hearty sympathy with the principles formulated by that Order, and has always striven to be in thorough accord with the feelings of



his subordinates, and to cordially co-operate with them in every measure to promote their welfare and advancement. By thus identifying himself with their interests he has obtained the privileges of using the label of the Order, and of stamping his various brands with their special mark of signification. Large numbers of the men connected with the various labor organizations show their appreciation of this touch of sympathy by only purchasing the brands which bear the label.

The advantages gained by dealing with this old, reliable firm, is properly appreciated by the immense number of customers connected with the establishment, who all testify that their mutual relations are eminently agreeable and satisfactory.

There is no doubt that the future extension of this great business will rapidly increase under the earnest management of Mr. Mortimer Davis.

H. A. NELSON & SONS.

A PECULIAR interest attaches to the names of the founders of our leading Canadian business houses. Venturing in troublous times, and in a new and untried country, to establish the foundations of a great commercial trade, they have, over and over again, proved themselves to have been men of singular abilities, possessed at once of the caution that results from keen foresight, and a spirit of daring that rendered them ideally fitted to be the pioneers of commercial life in a new land. The phenomenal growth of every industry, and every useful art in Canada, testifies to the accuracy of their judgment and to the soundness of the principles that guided their transactions. Their monument is the prosperity which their adopted country enjoys to-day, a prosperity full of promise in the future, and hinting of a greatness yet to be attained.

Prominent among Canadian firms of long standing is the house of H. A. Nelson & Sons, manufacturers of corn brooms, whisks and woodenware, and dealers in fancy goods, toys, etc., etc., which was established 57 years ago in Montreal. The business was founded by the late H. A. Nelson and Isaac Butters, under the name and style of Nelson & Butters. Mr. H. A. Nelson had settled in the year 1837 in Montreal, and was originally a native of New Hampshire. He threw himself with characteristic energy into the public life of the country of his adoption, career a degree of popular to an individual. Public election and re-election as held during a period of four-man of Finance in the city

In 1851, Mr. Butters was taken into the firm Wood & Co. Mr. Wood present firm was formed, H. A. Nelson, and four sons, Charles H., and Fred. E.

In 1868, a branch was of the sons, Messrs. H. W. manage it, the success which firm in Montreal following speedily showed a stability parent house.

While his business in- ing, Mr. Nelson, senior, was in 1878, when Mr. Joly (now form a Cabinet, appealed to of the principles (liberal) was returned as member of Montreal Centre. He re-

years. He also represented the West ward in the city council for nineteen years and was one of the most able and energetic members of his time. He was chairman of the Finance Committee for a number of years. His death occurred in 1882.

There can be no doubt that to the house of H. A. Nelson & Sons, much of the prosperity of the fancy goods trade in Montreal is owing. The business to-day occupies the premises Nos. 59, 61 and 63 St. Peter street in Montreal; and in Toronto at Nos. 56 and 58 Front street west.

It is well known that in the sons of the founder of the house we have citizens who follow in the steps of their father, inheriting much of his peculiar aptitude for trade together with his strong sense of justice and right. In their hands is vested the active management and proprietorship of the concern, Messrs A. D. and F. E. Nelson controlling the business in Montreal, while Messrs. H. W. and C. H. Nelson have charge in Toronto. Some forty people are engaged at the Montreal house, while a corps of six travellers represent the interests of the house on the road. The various departments embrace brooms, woodenware, matches, brushes, matches, mirrors, perambulators, clocks, bags, trunks, baskets, druggists' sundries, tobacconists' sundries, stationers' sundries, fancy goods, Bohemian glassware, chinaware, toys, games and notions of every description.

The Messrs. Nelson in both cities were born in Montreal, and are prominent members of the Board of Trade in the respective cities in which their business interests are located.



THE LATE H. A. NELSON.

and enjoyed throughout his favor, but rarely accorded team evinced itself by his Alderman, a post which he teen years. He was Chair- during most of that time. retired, and Mr. A. S. Wood under the style of Nelson, retiring early in 1874, the the partners being Mr. Albert D., Horatio W.,

opened in Toronto, and two and C. H., went there to had always attended the this new enterprise, which which equalled that of the

terests were thus progress- much before the public, and, Sir Henri), being invited to the people for a ratification of his party, Mr. Nelson the Quebec Legislature for tained his seat for four

THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR.

At the time of the formation of the new National Policy Cabinet, Sir John Macdonald undertook to administer the affairs of the Interior, that is Manitoba and the great North-West Territory, which includes all British North America lying outside the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island and Keewatin—being bounded on the North by the Arctic, on the East by the Atlantic, on the West by the Pacific, and on the South by portions of the Dominion of Canada and the United States. This magnificent territory, covering an area of about 2,750,000 square miles, is watered by numerous rivers and lakes. Seven great rivers flow into Hudson's Bay, three into the Arctic Ocean, and three into Lake Winnipeg. The Mackenzie River is 2,500 miles long; it flows through a fertile and finely wooded country, and drains an area of 443,000 square miles. The Saskatchewan River is 1,300 miles in length, and with its tributaries drains an area of 363,000 square miles. Of lakes, the Great Bear Lake is 250 miles long and about the same in breadth. Lake Athabaska is 230 miles long and from 20 to 40 miles wide. Lake Winnipeg is 280 miles long, varying in width from 5 to 57 miles. Lake of the Woods is 75 miles long and 60 miles wide. This immense district, at once watered and drained by these rivers and lakes, has at least 300,000,000 acres of the finest wheat-growing country in the world. The fertile belt of the Saskatchewan alone contains an area of 64,400 square miles in one continuous strip 800 miles long and about 80 miles broad. But, probably, the best and largest wheat area lies beyond the Saskatchewan, comprising the valleys of the Athabaska and Peace rivers, up to the slopes of the Rocky Mountains on the Pacific side, giving an area of 300,000,000 acres beyond what has been known as "the fertile belt," and one-third of which is incalculably rich for all agricultural purposes. Upon the acquirement of this vast territory by the Government, arrangements were made for a careful but elaborate survey for the purpose of laying out the country into Townships. During the summer of 1873 the International Boundary, lat. 49°, was established by the Boundary Commission, appointed by the Imperial and United States Governments. This line was accepted as the base of the surveys, and was to be known as the "First Base." From this line others were run at right angles northward and named Principal Meridians.

After much deliberation, it was decided to lay out the country in four-sided townships, in forms almost square. Each township measures on its east and west sides, from centre to centre of the road allowances,—which form its actual boundaries—483 chains, and on its north and south sides, 480 chains, more or less; subject to the deficiency or surplus resulting from the convergence or divergence of the meridian, caused by the curvature of the surface of the earth.

The "First Base," or International Boundary established, others were run twenty-four miles apart parallel to this one, and numbered Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Base, as far as the surveys extend to the North. The country was then laid out in blocks twenty-four miles square, each block containing sixteen townships. These blocks lie within four straight lines, having a Base Line at the north and at the south. Twelve miles from either Base a line is run east and west, named a "Correction Line," and on this line all corrections are made. Each township is sub-divided into thirty-six "Sections," each containing one square mile, or 640 acres; two sections of each township, numbered 11 and 29, are reserved by the Government as "School Lands," so that adequate provision is made for educational purposes.

To promote and wisely guide settlement in so vast and valuable a country was a task involving great responsibility. For it meant the opening up of a new world; it meant laying a proper basis of civil government for the vast population which in the near future must be gathered there. A false start might lead to disastrous issues. This new portion of the Dominion must at no very distant day play an important part in directing the policy of the whole country, and therefore it was the more necessary that at the initiation no blunders should be made from which after grievances might spring, in any way tending to alienate Manitoba and the North-West Territory from the older provinces.

In the land regulations the settler is provided with a homestead of 160 acres, which he gets free of any cost, except \$10.00 as registration fee, and the adjoining 160 acres may be pre-empted at \$2.00 per acre in

Class D, and \$2.50 per acre in Classes A, B, and C,—an average price of \$1.00 to \$1.25 per acre for a farm of 320 acres. The regulations are as follows:—

1. The surveyed lands in Manitoba and the North-West Territories shall, for the purpose of these Regulations, be classified as follows:—

CLASS A.—Lands within twenty-four miles of the main line or any branch line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, on either side thereof.

CLASS B.—Lands within twelve miles, on either side, of any projected line of railway (other than the Canadian Pacific Railway), approved by order-in-Council published in the *Canada Gazette*.

CLASS C.—Lands south of the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway not included in Class A or B.

CLASS D.—Lands other than those in Classes A, B, and C.

2. The even-numbered sections in all the foregoing classes are to be held exclusively for homesteads and pre-emptions.

a. Except in Class D, where they may be affected by colonization agreements, as hereinafter provided.

b. Except where it may be necessary out of them to provide wood lots for settlers.

c. Except in case where the Minister of the Interior, under provisions of the Dominion Land Acts, may deem it expedient to withdraw certain lands, and sell them at public auction, or otherwise deal with them as the Governor-in-Council may direct.

3. The odd-numbered sections in Class A are reserved for the Canadian Pacific Railway Company.

4. The odd-numbered sections in Classes B and C shall be for sale at \$2.50 per acre, payable at the time of sale:

a. Except where they have been or may be dealt with otherwise by the Governor-in-Council.

5. The odd-numbered sections in Class D shall be for sale at \$2 per acre, payable at time of sale:

a. Except where they have been or may be dealt with otherwise by the Governor-in-Council.

b. Except lands affected by colonization agreement, as hereinafter provided.

6. Persons who, subsequent to survey, but before the issue of the Order-in-Council of the 9th October, 1879, excluding odd-numbered sections from homestead entry, took possession of land in odd-numbered sections by residing on and cultivating the same, shall, if continuing so to occupy them, be permitted to obtain homestead and pre-emption entries as if they were on even-numbered sections.

PRE-EMPTIONS.

7. The prices for pre-emption lots shall be as follows:—

For lands in Classes A, B, and C, \$2.50 per acre.

For lands in Class D, \$2.00 per acre.

Payments shall be made in one sum at the end of three years from the date of entry, or at such earlier date as a settler may, under the provision of the Dominion Lands Acts, obtain a patent for the homestead to which such pre-emption lot belongs.

* * * * *

Provision was also made for the encouragement of colonization companies for filling up the North-West, and the value of the whole land policy of the department may be measured by the fact that the sale and homesteading of lands, commenced on a small scale in 1871, exceeded, for the year 1882, ten millions of acres, and that the money receipts from 1870, the date of the transfer of the Territory from the Hudson's Bay Company to the Dominion Government, to the first of January, 1882, amounted to but \$820,000, while on the first of January, 1883, the returns gave the enormous sum of \$2,250,000. A startling statement in proof of the marvellous rapidity with which the country is being settled.

For some time it was feared that the supply of fuel on the great prairies would be but scant, and render life to the settler difficult during the extreme cold of winter, but subsequent surveys have discovered numerous beds of coal there. In the region west of Edmonton, bounded on the north by the Athabasca River and on the south by the Red Deer River, a coal field has been found covering an area of not less than 25,000 square miles. Coal seams have been seen on the Pembina River 20 feet thick. It is also found on McLeod River, and at Coal Creek, near the entrance to the Jasper Valley. In the elevated country, south of Little Slave Lake, many fine seams have been found, and its occurrence on Peace River is well known.

In order to administer the affairs of this huge country as its settlement may demand, and to prepare the way for its self-government in the near future, the Government have divided the whole territory into four provinces, viz: Assiniboia, bounded on the south by the International boundary line, on the east by the western boundary of Manitoba, on the north by the 9th Correction Line of the Dominion Lands System of Survey into townships which is near the 52nd parallel of latitude, and on the west by the line dividing the 10th and 11th ranges of townships west of the 4th initial meridian of the Dominion Lands Survey; the district comprising an area of 95,000 square miles. Second, the Saskatchewan Province, about 114,000 square miles, bounded on the south by the district of Assiniboia and the northern boundary of the Province of Manitoba; on the east by Winnipeg, with a part of Nelson River; on the north by the 18th Correction Line, and on the west by the Correction Line dividing the 10th and 11th ranges of townships west of the fourth initial meridian. Third, the district of Alberta, comprising about 100,000 square miles, bounded on the south by the International Boundary, on the east by the district of Assiniboia, on the west by the Province of British Columbia at the base of the Rocky Mountains, and on the north by the 18th Correction Line. Fourth, the district of Athabaska, containing an area of about 122,000 square miles, bounded on the south by Alberta, on the east by the 10th and 11th ranges of the Dominion Lands Townships, until it intersects the Athabaska River; then by that river and the Athabaska Lake and Slave River to its intersection with the northern boundary of the district which is to be the 32nd Correction line.

To provide for the administration of justice, to protect the rights of settlers and the Indians who are placed on "reserves," a system of mounted police is maintained in an efficient manner. As the result of this and the friendly attitude of the Government toward the native Indian tribes, the North-West is absolutely free from the turmoil and bloodshed which so generally mar the frontier life in the western parts of the United States. So that this North-West, with its healthy and fruit-producing climate, its inexhaustibly rich soil, its abundance of timber, coal and water, offering health and wealth to all who will settle with a mind to toil, must, in a few years, become the happy homes of millions who will provide corn for the markets of the old and new worlds.

OPERATIONS OF THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

FOR THE YEAR 1894.

THE operations of the Geological Survey in the field, constitute the basis of the entire work of the department. These naturally divide themselves under two principal heads: (1) Reconnaissance surveys and explorations, covering in a general way large tracts of country, and (2) the systematic mapping and description in detail of less extensive areas. The first inevitably precedes the second class of work, and for many years it must, in the nature of things, remain the only method possible of dealing with the vast regions of Canada which lie beyond the boundaries of connected settlement. While the exploration of new districts, in which geographical information is obtained concurrently with data on the general geology and mineral resources, may attract popular attention to a greater degree, the methodical delineation of the geological features of the older parts of Canada must be regarded as at least equally important and as requiring no inferior ability or diligence on the part of those engaged in it.

The collections now contained in the building of the Geological Survey, including the departments of mineralogy, lithology, paleontology, botany, zoology, and ethnology, either on exhibition or classified and readily accessible, aggregate more than 120,000 specimens. The greater part of the space available is devoted to the illustration of the minerals and general geology of Canada, but it is impossible to display the specimens to advantage, or in such a manner as to attract the public notice which they deserve. The position of the building and its construction, further render it liable to the constant danger of destruction by fire, and when it is remembered that the collections include the typical specimens which have been described in the publications of the Survey since its initiation, besides many others of a character which it would now be impossible to duplicate, the very serious nature of this risk will be understood. The building also contains much accumulated material in maps, plans, notes, and records, together with the entire reserve stock of the printed reports of the Survey, and a library comprising a large number of scarce and valuable scientific works.

BORING AT ATHABASCA LANDING.

The occurrence of great quantities of bitumen or maltha along a portion of the Athabasca River has long been known, having been noticed and commented upon by the very earliest travellers in the region. Beds of sand or very soft sandstone of Cretaceous age, varying from 140 to 225 feet in thickness, are there found to be more or less completely saturated with bitumen, for a distance of some ninety miles along the river. These beds are known as "tar sands." More recently a number of smaller occurrences of bitumen in the form of "tar springs," as well as sources of combustible gas, have been found at different places over a very extensive district. All these circumstances point to the probable existence of a great petroleum field, of which possibly some parts have already exhausted themselves in saturating the lowest Cretaceous sands, but of which probably the greater portion is still effectually sealed by the thick covering of overlying rocks. It is believed that the source of the petroleum which has given rise to the deposits of bitumen is in the Devonian strata, which here immediately underlie those of Cretaceous age.

In the search for petroleum of commercial value, in which the more volatile constituents may still be retained, two principal modes of its probable occurrence in quantity, present themselves:—(1) The "tar sands," at a distance from their outcrop and where sufficiently covered, may contain reservoirs of such petroleum, secondarily derived; (2) the original sources of the petroleum, probably existing in porous beds of the Devonian, may themselves be reached, after passing through the "tar sands" or their equivalents.

"The tar sands evidence an upwelling of petroleum to the surface unequalled elsewhere in the world, but the more volatile and valuable constituents of the oil have long since disappeared, and the rocks from which it issued are probably exhausted, as the flow has ceased. In the extension of the tar sands under cover the conditions are different, and it is here that oils of economic value should be sought. In ascending the Athabasca, the tar sands are overlaid at Boiler Rapid by a cover of shales sufficient to prevent the oil from rising to the surface, and in ascending the river, this cover gradually thickens. * * * * The question of the continuity of the tar sands and their petroliferous character under cover, can, however, only be settled in a decided manner by boring, and it is highly desirable that drilling operations should be undertaken for this purpose. At the mouth of Pelican River, the tar sands are probably covered by about 700 feet of strata, and this amount increases as the river is ascended. At the Athabasca Landing, if the formation extends to that point, it probably lies at a depth of from 1,200 to 1,500 feet below the surface, but the distance of the Landing from the outcrop of the tar sands, and the variability in the thickness of the Cretaceous formations make it impossible to give more than a rough estimate."*

The importance of actually ascertaining by means of boring operations the existence or otherwise of economically valuable bodies of petroleum in the Athabasca region has been recognized for many years, but the remoteness of the region and the apparent impossibility of immediately utilizing any discoveries which might be made, have hitherto prevented the necessary experiments. The recent completion of a line of railway to Edmonton has, however, considerably changed the conditions in these respects. It was thus decided that the time had arrived when some experimental boring might with advantage be undertaken by the Government, and a vote of \$7,000 was obtained from Parliament during the past session for the purpose of initiating this work, the arrangements for which were entrusted to the Geological Survey. After careful consideration, it was determined that a bore-hole should in the first instance be sunk at Athabasca Landing, at which place the depth of strata to be passed through in order to reach the horizon of the "tar sands" had, as above stated, been estimated by Mr. McConnell at approximately from 1,200 to 1,500 feet. On some grounds it might have been more advantageous to begin boring at a locality further to the north and east, where the depth of cover would be smaller and the actual known outcrop of the "tar sands" less distant, but the difficulties of transport for machinery and casing beyond the Landing militated against this. In another respect also Athabasca Landing appeared to be a suitable spot for a first test:—A wide low anticlinal by which the Cretaceous rocks of the plains are affected over a great area, tends towards the Saskatchewan near Egg Lake, and if continued should reach the Athabasca near the Landing. The arch formed by these rocks is so low and diffuse that in consequence of the scarcity of natural sections it is difficult to trace it, but if continued to the Landing, experience elsewhere gained shows that the structure should be a favorable one for the concentration of any supplies of petroleum contained in the strata.

All indications favor a belief in the existence of a great petroleum bearing region in the North-west, and the results which would flow directly from the definition of such a region, are so important, as to warrant any expenditure which may be necessary in that direction. It is not probable that petroleum, if found in Northern

* Annual Report Geological Survey of Canada, vol. V. (N.S.), p. 66 D.

Alberta or in Athabasca, would seriously compete in the east with the already established petroleum industry of Ontario; but the considerable and yearly increasing demands of British Columbia and the North-west Territories would afford a local market which might be large, as, if the oil could be furnished at a low price, it would undoubtedly be employed as a liquid fuel for railways in many parts of the country. The comparative proximity of the Athabasca region to the Pacific, further indicates that an enormous foreign demand, co-extensive with the shores of that ocean, might be most profitably supplied from this region. The extent of this market may be in part realized when it is stated that the export of illuminating and paraffine oils from the United States to Japan, China, and Hong Kong alone, amounted in 1893 to 67,372,136 gallons.

What may prove to be an important deposit of cinnabar has lately been found in the vicinity of Copper Creek, Kamloops Lake, and several contiguous claims have been taken up on this, on the west side of the valley of the creek, near its mouth. The claims have, I believe, been combined in a single property, but the best looking deposit of ore occurs on the "Rosebush claim," where a shaft about fifty feet deep, connecting below with a drift more than fifty feet long, has been opened. The height of this place is about 450 feet above the lake. Other small openings have been made in the same vicinity, as well as a second shaft, thirty-five feet deep, on the "Yellow Jacket claim," about a quarter of a mile northward of the Rosebush.

The cinnabar occurs in irregular sparry veins, consisting chiefly of calcite and quartz, with some dolomite, traversing zones of a gray felspathic and dolomitic rock which readily weathers to a yellowish color. Both these zones and the contained veins, as a rule, run nearly magnetic north-and-south through the main rock of the hills, which is a dark greenish-black, Tertiary eruptive, containing pyroxene and olivine, possibly a melaphyre, but much decomposed. A considerable quantity of rich ore has been taken from the wider portions of the main vein opened on the Rosebush. Although the slopes of the hills are abrupt, they are almost everywhere covered with drift deposits, and much more work is necessary in order that the true value of the deposit may be ascertained. Exploratory trenching in an east-and-west direction would be the most economical method in the first instance. A little antimony sulphide (stibnite) is observable in some parts of the ore.

Another claim, upon which very little work has been done, is the "Last Chance, No. 1," situated on the east side of Copper Creek, near the junction of the Tertiary volcanic rocks with small areas of decomposed granite. Small quantities of cinnabar are found here, and some narrow seams of molybdenum also occur. In the adjacent granitic mass, minute bright red specks of cinnabar may also be detected, and it would appear that the extensive decomposition of the basic volcanic rocks of this region, by heated waters or steam, has led to the diffusion of a certain quantity of cinnabar, through some parts of both classes of rock, and to its concentration in some of the veins.

Decomposition of a similar character, has affected the rocks seen on the opposite side of Kamloops Lake, along the railway, to the east of the mouth of Cherry Bluff Creek. No cinnabar has been observed here, but distinct traces of cinnabar are found in seams cutting some of the rocks at Six-mile Point, also on the south shore, but further to the west.

These occurrences indicate that search may be made for cinnabar over a considerable area, with some prospect of success.

Also on the east side of Copper Creek, but about half-a-mile back from the lake, a claim named "The Tenderfoot," has been taken up on an irregular deposit of copper ore (bornite). But little work has been done here, and there appears to be little reason to hope that the deposit will prove to be a really valuable one.

Copper Creek derives its name from the fact that the Indians have from time immemorial known it as a locality of native copper. Specimens were obtained last season from the serpentinous decomposed rocks to the east of the stream, which show some of this native copper, but the quantity is probably inconsiderable from an economic point of view.

Specimens have been received of kaolin and china-stone from a locality on the west side of the Thompson opposite Spatsum station. It was found to lie in the remarkably shattered decomposed zone of rocks which runs along this part of the Thompson River for many miles; but in this place, the rocks instead of being merely silicified and reddened, have suffered a more complete change.

They appear to have been in the first instance thoroughly decomposed and pyritized, and subsequently more or less completely leached by acid waters resulting from the decomposition of the pyrites. The materials so produced, when cut into by lateral ravines, form bare crumbling banks of red, yellow, and white colors, upon which scarcely any vegetation grows. Some parts of these are almost purely siliceous, while others consist of mixtures of quartz and kaolinite in varying proportions, with often a perceptible efflorescence of soluble salts with a styptic taste. The white and thoroughly leached rocks are those which have attracted attention as china-stone, and in them, kernels and veins of pure white gypsum occasionally occur. It is

doubtful, however, whether any great quantity of china-stone could be easily quarried, free from iron stains, while the kaolinite could only be obtained pure and in quantity by crushing and washing the lighter colored parts of the deposit.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT OF SIR CHARLES TUPPER, BART., G.C.M.G., C.B.,
HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR CANADA, ON EMIGRATION.

VICTORIA CHAMBERS, 17 VICTORIA STREET,
LONDON, S.W., 23rd January, 1895.

The Hon. T. Mayne Daly, Q.C., M.P.,
Minister of the Interior,
Ottawa, Canada.

I have seen allusions in some of the papers to what is called "astounding" decrease in emigration to Canada, and the figures for 1893 are given as 50,381, and those for 1894 as 23,731. It should be remembered, however, that of these figures 25,649 and 6,089 respectively represent the foreigners in each year who crossed the Atlantic by way of British ports. Very few of them in either year were for Canadian destinations, and only travelled by way of Canadian ports to reach the United States, most of them being persons who were returning to their homes after visiting friends on the continent. The fall in the movement from the United Kingdom, so far as can be gathered from the figures, is serious enough—about 30 per cent.—but there is no object in making the case out to be worse than it is. The decrease in the case of Canada is practically the same as in the United States, and in the total emigration of the two years compared. It may be mentioned that emigration to Canada is still largely in excess of that of any other country, except the United States; and even there a very much larger share of it consists of persons returning to their homes after visits across the Atlantic, either on business or pleasure, than in the case of emigration to Canada. And, again, although the population of our neighbours is more than twelve times greater than that of Canada, and population is the great magnet for attracting immigration, their immigration is only about six times as large as ours, and the disparity would probably not be as large if there were any means of analysing the figures.

It is right that I should repeat that the direct emigration from Great Britain to Canadian ports is no reliable measure of the actual movement that may be taking place. Owing to the faster service available by way of American ports, the expense being practically the same, it naturally follows that many passengers travel to Canada by way of the United States, but all such persons are credited to the last named country in the returns that are issued by the British Board of Trade.

In order that the public may be aware of what is being done, so far as it is desirable to publish our methods, in view of the competition to which we are subjected, I propose to explain the efforts that are made to promote emigration, and I need hardly say that at all times I shall welcome any suggestions which may tend to bring about the object, which we are all working for, of peopling the vacant lands of Canada.

As you are aware at certain times of the year we advertise freely in the press of the United Kingdom the advantages which Canada offers to emigrants in the different provinces. Pamphlets, maps, and all kinds of information are offered post free to any persons who may apply for them; and the addresses of this office, and of the various agents of your department are given, so that intending emigrants, or persons contemplating emigration, may communicate personally with the agents, and see them and discuss the matter with them, if they are near any of the Government offices.

That this method is effective is proved by the correspondence we receive when the advertisements appear, and the remarkable manner in which the letters decrease when the advertisements are discontinued. This method of distributing pamphlets is especially valuable from the fact that every person who takes the trouble to write for information is probably interested in the subject, and will read the pamphlets and pass them on. On the other hand, the indiscriminate distribution of pamphlets simply means that some of them fall into good hands, while the remainder practically do us little or no good.

Attractive posters are displayed in every post office in the United Kingdom, over 23,000 in number, indicating the special advantages of Canada, and where pamphlets and information can be obtained. This valuable advertisement is obtained through the courtesy and consideration of the Postmaster General.

Then again similar posters with specially prepared pamphlets about Canada are issued to the press at frequent intervals by the Emigrant's Information Bureau, which is under the control of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Their posters are exhibited in all the offices under the control of the Government Post Office, Inland Revenue and Excise Offices, Income Tax Offices and other public departments.

It is within your knowledge also that the many thousands of steamship agents throughout the United Kingdom are specially interested in encouraging emigration to Canada. They advertise on their own account, and the steamship companies spend a large sum of money annually on similar services. By this means a considerable number of pamphlets are distributed every year to persons who, as you know, are directly and specially interested in the encouragement of emigration to Canada over any other country.

In addition, there are also the various philanthropic societies, which are engaged in the encouragement and assistance of emigration to Canada and to other countries. Their efforts are largely directed to Canada, and, as a result, I believe, great discrimination is shown in the character and suitability of people they send out. In many cases persons are forwarded to join their friends, and in others they are sent to the care of the society's representative in Canada, who looks after them until they are satisfactorily placed in employment.

The two great railways in Canada, the Canadian Pacific and the Grand Trunk Railway, are also showing considerable interest in emigration. This now applies particularly to the Canadian Pacific Railway, in view of the fact of their immense interests in Manitoba and the North-West Territories and in British Columbia. They both advertise more or less freely, issue special pamphlets, and use every means of bringing the advantages of Canada to the front, and of encouraging emigration of a desirable class to the Dominion.

For the last few years I have been making special endeavours to encourage the delivery of lectures in the United Kingdom on Canada and Canadian subjects. Most of your special agents are doing very useful work in this respect. To stimulate the movement, with your sanction and consent, I arranged for the preparation of lantern slides illustrative of Canadian scenery. As you are aware we started with one set, but we have now eighteen sets, and during the winter, autumn and spring seasons, there is hardly an evening on which they are not being utilized. We offer, through the medium of the press, and in other ways, to lend the slides to anyone willing to lecture on Canada, and to furnish material for lectures. They have been availed of by the travelling public, by clergymen, and by school masters to a very large extent. Several sets are at the present time being utilized by the technical educational committees of the various county councils, for illustrating the lectures on Canadian agriculture which are being delivered by their lecturers.

A very important work for Canada is being done by the two thousand or more of school-masters of the elementary schools in the United Kingdom, with whom I am in frequent communication. Not only do they often deliver lectures to their day scholars, and to the pupils of more advanced ages who work during the day, and who attend the evening schools, but thousands of our emigration pamphlets are being used as readers under their directions. As the books are read in connection with the lessons on colonial geography, and the boys and girls are allowed to take them home, it stands to reason that in this way Canada and its resources are introduced into many houses in which the subject would not otherwise become familiar.

A very valuable means of bringing Canada before the agricultural public is by representation at the great agricultural shows. During the last year we were represented at the Royal Show at Cambridge, at the Highland Show at Aberdeen, and the Lancashire Show at Bolton. At the first and last named we were able to make a fairly representative collection of exhibits illustrating the agricultural and other industries of the Dominion, and the shed was also adorned with photographs of scenery lent by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. At Aberdeen the exhibition van of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company formed the nucleus of the Canadian exhibit, and the agents of your department in Scotland co-operated with the agent of the Canadian Pacific Railway, not only distributing pamphlets, but in affording information to the many inquiries that were received about the different provinces of the Dominion.

Several of your agents also attended many of the smaller fairs, shows, etc., for the purpose of coming into contact with the farmers and others connected with agriculture, and the steamship agents also pay considerable attention to this means of getting into communication with persons who are calculated to make successful settlers in Canada.

The new regulations relating to the emigration of children are now working satisfactorily, and I am sure they will be beneficial. It enables us to keep a check upon the operations of the various agencies engaged in the work, and at the same time ensures that all the children sent out are physically and mentally healthy. The matter is receiving and will continue to receive my close attention.

There is another matter to which I would refer, as representing a serious difficulty we have to encounter in encouraging emigration, especially as compared with the history of the movement in the past to the

United States. It is stated by the best authorities that while the emigration to the States was at its height, about 70 per cent. of the passengers had their passages paid by friends already settled in the country. They obtained the money either out of their own savings, or on loan from private bankers and others. In Canada, however, this class of the emigration is not more than 5 per cent. of the total, and it would be a matter of congratulation to Canada if it could be increased. As will be readily understood, emigration of this class is the most valuable that we could possibly receive.

THE TENANT FARMER DELEGATES.

In my last annual report I referred to the visit of the Tenant Farmer Delegates in 1893, and to the reports that were then in course of preparation. They were ready for distribution early in 1894, and the advance copies which were sent to the newspapers, and the liberal and friendly notices they received, immediately led to a very large demand for copies. The same remark applies to the special reports that were printed of the visits of Professor Wallace and Professor Long, two of the best known agricultural writers in the United Kingdom.

In order to attract the widest possible attention to the reports of the delegates, I caused a copy to be posted direct to every farmer, market gardener and blacksmith in the United Kingdom. Copies were also furnished to the schoolmasters, and to every hotel and inn in places of under 10,000 inhabitants, the latter being accompanied by a special letter asking that the pamphlet might be placed in a prominent position. Supplies were also furnished to the Government agents, to the steamship agents and railway companies. By these and other methods, and especially as the result of the thorough advertisement the pamphlets received, no less than 500,000 pamphlets were distributed in the course of a few months. That most of them reached their destination is proved by the fact that of those distributed by the post less than one half of one per cent. were returned.

A very large correspondence resulted from this special distribution of pamphlets, and it has enabled me to comply with your suggestion to modify our expenditure somewhat during the present year. Good results must naturally follow from this work; it may not be this year or next, but certainly good seed has been sown, the fruits of which we are sure to reap bye-and-bye.

THE CLERGY INTERESTED.

In order to specially attract the attention of clergymen to Canada, a special pamphlet was prepared containing papers by two prominent English clergymen and a Canadian clergyman. A copy was sent to every clergyman in the United Kingdom, and has led to correspondence in various ways.

INFLUENCE OF FARM DELEGATES.

Since the return of the delegates many of them have delivered lectures, or communicated an account of their visit to the press, in addition to the reports they were good enough to prepare. The publicity given to their views has led to the receipt by all of them of considerable correspondence, and I quote extracts from communications which they have addressed to me recently, upon the subject of emigration, viewed in the light of the experience they have recently had.

As the consequence of the various Tenant Farmers Delegations in the last fourteen years, there are now a number of gentlemen in the United Kingdom with a thorough knowledge of Canada and its agriculture, who take a continual interest in the subject, and whose advice is continually asked by intending emigrants. We endeavour to keep them supplied with pamphlets and up-to-date information, and their co-operation is of the most valuable nature.

THE IMPERIAL INSTITUTE.

The Imperial Institute is likely to prove a very valuable adjunct to our emigration work. Most of the provinces are represented by exhibits more or less complete, and they will no doubt be improved in course of time and kept up to date. They are particularly interesting to intending emigrants as affording an object lesson which cannot be obtained from the perusal of pamphlets and the resources and capabilities of the different parts of the Dominion. This effect is seen in the considerable and increasing number of visitors to the sections, and in the inquiries that are made of the Curator and Assistant Curator on the subject of emi-

gration. I quote a report I have received from Mr. Harrison Watson, Curator, on the emigration work of the Canadian section as well as some remarks of his on the collections now being exhibited. The expenditure required from the different provinces is comparatively limited, and I trust the importance of keeping up the Canadian section to a proper degree of perfection will be realised. It will, in the near future, form a Canadian museum, the importance of which it is not easy to over-estimate.

EMIGRATION FROM UNITED STATES TO CANADA.

One of the most hopeful features of Canadian immigration the last few years has been the movement from the United States. Formerly it was the custom of the America railroads, and others interested in American immigration, to decry the advantages of Canada, and to discourage people from taking up their homes in the Dominion. The fact, therefore, that there is now a movement from the Western States to Manitoba and the North-West is conclusive proof of a change of opinion in regard to Canada on the part of settlers in the Republic, and I have no doubt that this circumstance, which has been widely commented upon in the United Kingdom, will have its effect when emigration begins to move again.

THE PROVINCIAL AGENTS GENERAL.

As you are aware, several of the provinces have agents or agents general in the United Kingdom, among them Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Ontario and British Columbia. Until quite recently, Manitoba was also represented, but the office was closed at the end of the last year. I am in frequent communication with these gentlemen on matters connected with emigration, etc., and am very glad to have their co-operation in the work of disseminating information about the different provinces of the Dominion.

EMIGRATION FROM THE CONTINENT TO CANADA.

You will have gathered from the reports I have sent you, at various times, the efforts that are being made to attract continental emigration in the direction of Canada. Our operations are naturally somewhat restricted by the nature of the laws in existence which are intended to discourage emigration, but everything is being done so far as the laws permit to disseminate information about Canada, and to give prominence to the advantages it offers.

CONCLUSION.

In conclusion let me say that I regard the encouragement of emigration to Canada as one of the most important subjects that can engage the attention of the government and people of the Dominion, but the work must be done with judgment and discrimination. I give the matter my personal and continual attention, and, as already stated, cordially welcome any suggestions that may be sent to me which may tend to increase the movement of desirable and suitable settlers in the direction of Canada.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

CHARLES TUPPER,
High Commissioner.

HON. SENATOR A. W. OGILVIE.

SINCE its formation, the Canadian Senate has numbered amongst its members some of the foremost men of the Dominion, men of sterling worth, sound judgment and great power of penetration, who have not unfrequently sacrificed their private interests at the shrine of our common country, men whose names will be recorded in the history of a young country whose destiny is a high place in the roll call of nations.

Of the large number who have graced the Halls of the Senate Chamber, there is none more highly honored and esteemed than that of Lieut.-Col. Hon. Alexander Walker Ogilvie, the miller prince of Canada's metropolis, who was born of an heroic and martial race, descended from a line of Scottish chieftains as old, almost, and as steadfast as the crags and hills of that grand Scotian land he so proudly claims as the home of his forefathers.

The senator comes of fighting stock. Descended from a younger brother of Gilchrist, Earl of Angus, that valiant soldier who, in the thirteenth century, was rewarded with the lands of Ogilvie in Banffshire, Scotland, who then assumed that ancient name, his family name has long been celebrated in history as the one who long preserved the Scottish Crown and Sceptre from the hands of Cromwell. Nor in this Canada of ours is the name of Ogilvie less famous in military annals, own distinguished services, the merited rank of Lieut.-his father fought on Canada of 1812 and 1837. Senator Canada in 1800, and the born at St. Michel, near He was educated in Mont-Sarah, daughter of the late mencing life on a sound, with the pluck and perseverance, at the early age of the great milling business has since become famous United States, and also on From its inception the busy-day it is one of the largest world.



was induced to enter the elected to represent Mont-Assembly of Quebec, which until 1871, when, in that ness, he refused the nomi-

ness grew steadily, and to-milling concerns in the In 1876, Mr. Ogilvie political arena, and was real West in the Legislative constituency he represented year, owing to press of busi-nation.

In 1874, Mr. Ogilvie retired from the business, his energy and enterprise had made famous, and the following year he again acceded to the wishes of the electorate of Montreal West, when he was again returned for that seat in the Local Legislature, which he held for three years until the general elections, when he once more refused the nomination. On December 24th, 1881, Mr. Ogilvie was called to the Senate to represent the Alma division in that body; for several years he had a seat in the City Council of Montreal as alderman, and during his term of office he took an active part in everything that came before that body for the interest of the city,

Besides his own firm, the Senator has long been connected with other enterprises. He is president of the St. Michel Road Company, chairman of the Montreal Board of Directors of the London (Eng.) Guarantee Company, and of the Montreal Loan & Mortgage Company, and a trustee of the Mount Royal Cemetery Company. He is a director of the Montreal Investment Company, the Sun Life Insurance Company, the Edwardsburg Starch Company, lieutenant of the Montreal Cavalry (now on the retired list), chairman of the Montreal Turnpike Trust, and president of the Workingmen's Widows' and Orphans' Benefit Society, and of the St. Andrew's Society.

It may be seen from the above facts that the Senator's life has been a very busy one, and that his time has been constantly occupied either in connection with the many enterprises in which he is interested, or in serving his fellow-countrymen in the discharge of public duties.

A. L. HURTUBISE.

THE glorious old commercial times, when the shrewd, intelligent merchants of Montreal had a monopoly for the sale of their respective goods; when competition was unknown, and fabulous fortunes were amassed, have vanished into the vista of the past. The city has expanded to such an extent, and the country has developed to such an extraordinary degree, that the old primitive, methodical measures of commercial procedure have had to give way to the excitement and bustle which now attends the ordinary transactions of business. The younger merchants of Montreal have to keep pace with all the modern improvements in industrial science, and with the wonderful facilities that have been introduced for the rapid conduct and transmission of business. Among these progressive business men in Montreal, no one stands more prominent than Mr. A. L. Hurtubise. His great success in his various business enterprises should be an incentive to young men who have to undergo a similar experience. He was born in St. Bruno, County of Chambly, P.Q., in 1855. His parents were in moderate circumstances, but were highly esteemed and respected. They were unable to afford him more than a very commonplace education, but the embryo student seized every point of instruction with avidity and made considerable progress. He came to Montreal in 1870, with a firm determination to conquer all obstacles and to achieve success. His first engagements were intensely labor-paniment of a very small daunted, he continued his and perseverance.

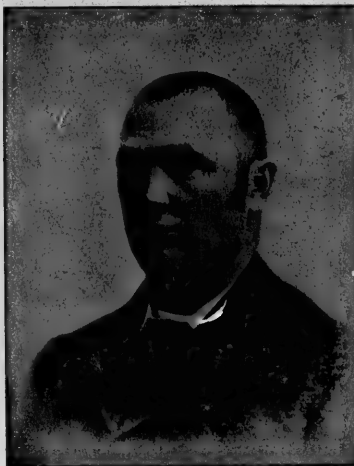
The strictest economy relaxations were few and time was devoted to the This untiring energy reaped years he was enabled to business with a fair pros- His capital was small but and, by fair dealing and to hold his own against eventually to establish his dation. Ever choosing the motto, he pursued his on- liguence and ability. He in- the lumber business in the which has realized his ut-

The rapid increase and enterprises has earned for "the man of success," served and well bestowed.

expanded into its various attendant branches, is now operated on a most extensive scale and is a fitting reward for the frugality, honesty and perseverance that has characterised all his actions. His early ambitious aspirations have been thoroughly obtained; he has acquired a reasonable competence and is at the head of a flourishing and lucrative business.

His good, manly qualities that we have just enumerated were bound to commend themselves to his neighbours in Hochelaga, and, in 1892, he was called upon by an influential delegation of the leading citizens to represent them in the city council. He accepted the honor and was elected by a very large majority. His conduct in the municipal council has given the greatest satisfaction to his constituents. Totally opposed to the prevailing system of bribery and corruption, he has always been on the side of truth and justice, and his actions have ever been characterized by honesty of purpose, and a due appreciation of what is beneficial to the true interests of the city. His popularity increased to such an extent that, in 1894, he was returned by acclamation to his seat in the city council, where he is a prominent member of the finance and other important committees.

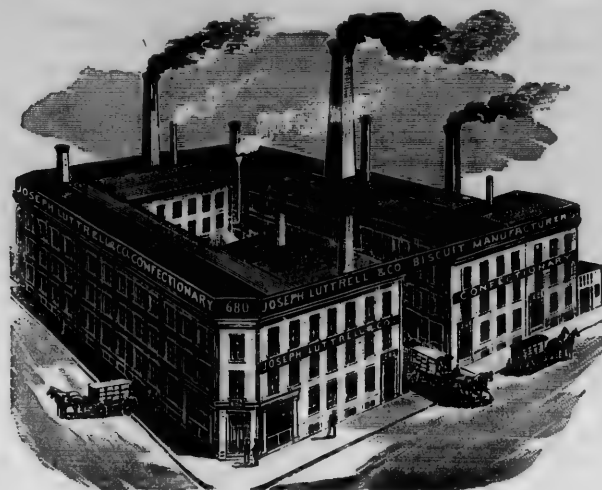
Mr. Hurtubise is now a large employer of labor, and his early struggles induces him to act in a generous manner to all his employees, with whom he has the heartiest sympathy, and who entertain the most cordial regard and esteem for their honored employer. Such is a fitting finale and a suitable triumph for an active, energetic life.



was the order of the day, far between, and his whole prosecution of his work, its reward, and in a few establish himself in the hay pect of doing a good trade. his enterprise was great, strict integrity, he was able severe competition, and business on a solid found- word "Excelsior" for his ward progress with intel- vested his surplus capital in Ottawa Valley, a transaction most expectations.

expansion of all his business Mr. Hurtubise the title of which is certainly well de- His business, which has ex-

His business, which has ex-



JOSEPH LUTTRELL & CO.

Among the industries which have been instrumental in giving to the city of Montreal her position in the commercial world, the manufacture of confectionery has always played an important part, and the houses engaged in this business have from the first shown a laudable spirit of enterprise, and a readiness to march with the times which have given to all their undertakings a surety of success. The firm whose name stands at the head of this article, was founded in 1868, and by energy, ability, and indomitable and determined perseverance, have built for themselves a reputation second to none, and have to-day an almost unique position in the trade.

Just how much ability, painstaking and labor must of necessity unite in the building up such a business as the one under consideration, only the initiated can know. No record is kept of the anxious forethought, the brilliant scheming, and the masterly activity that brought the early venture to so successful an issue. To such men as the members of the firm of Joseph Luttrell & Co. the commercial prosperity of Montreal is owing.

Their immense establishment for the manufacture of biscuits and confectionery is situated on the corner of Albert and Vinet streets. The commodious premises are eminently suited to their trade, and a staff of fifty men, all skilled hands, are constantly employed under competent foremen in making up stock. It is a well-known fact that only the best and purest ingredients are used in the manufacture of their goods, nothing deleterious being ever allowed on the premises. Worthy of mention among their many brands of biscuit are the Abernethy, Sultana, Zephyr, Lemon, Ladies' Fingers, Buttercup, Butter Scotch, French Buns, Cream Drops, Jelly Fruit, and many others. Their candies and sweetmeats are justly celebrated; they make a full line of Chocolate Creams, Mixed Candy, Acid Drops, Caramels, and every popular and favorite sort. In the coloring of these only vegetable matter is used. They also manufacture Candied Peels, which is one of their specialities. This article, though the fruit is grown in Sicily chiefly, was supposed at one time to be only capable of manufacture in Great Britain. Messrs. Luttrell & Co. have materially assisted in causing this illusion to disappear, and now many prefer the home-made article, as the imported often suffers from the sea-voyage. They also keep on hand, for the trade, a complete line of Cake ornaments.

The members of this firm enjoy the highest reputation among their fellow-citizens as men of exceptional business ability and staunch principle.

They have, in no small degree, the honor and esteem which are the just meed of those of our citizens whose enterprise has had so wide a field of operation that its accomplished results are a public benefit.

Mr. Joseph Luttrell, the senior member of the firm, is a member of the Board of Trade; he has been for ten years, and is still, an active member of the Council of St. Cunegonde; he also holds many other public offices, all of which testify to the esteem and confidence that is reposed in him by his fellow-citizens.

GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY.

HAVING regard to the territorial extent of Canada, and its climatic conditions, few countries have derived more solid advantages from railway enterprise. The idea of providing means and rapid and easy communication between the centres of population and commercial life, seems to have been grasped at once soon after the introduction of the system in England, and the passage, almost at a bound, from primitive methods of transit to the speed and luxury of to-day, was the outcome of the ready recognition of a necessity and the means of supplying it.

As the first great railway company of Canada has always had regard to the axiom that "a straight line is the shortest distance between two points," it may be said to have grasped the situation from the commence-



VICTORIA BRIDGE.

ment, ensuring the continued confidence and patronage of the public, and making of its history a triumphal progress.

The Grand Trunk Railway has always been recognized as the back-bone of Canada, and when we take into consideration the number and extent of its ramifications, its alliances and dependencies, we cease to wonder at the greatness of its influence—an influence which reaches throughout the continent and across the ocean, and we learn to contemplate with pride the enterprise, pluck, and splendid ability which guided the destinies of this colossal scheme.

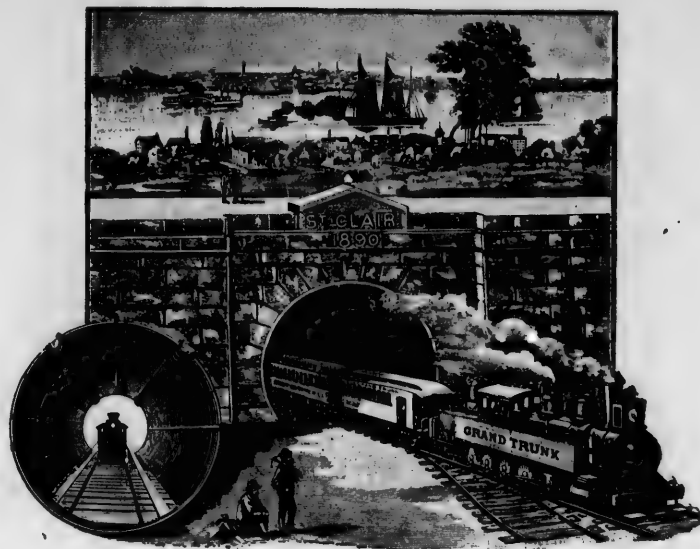
The Grand Trunk Railway was chartered in 1852. Numerous Acts of Parliament were passed during ensuing years, authorizing undertakings which, after a brief period of struggle or prosperity, became consolidated with the great enterprise, the interests of which have come to be identified with those of the Dominion.

The present Grand Trunk Railway Company was formed August 12, 1892, by the consolidation of a Company of the same name with the Great Western Railway Company, and the Company thus formed was united with the Northern Railway Company of Canada, and its leased line, the Hamilton and North-Western Railway on January 24, 1888, the consolidation taking the present style of the Grand Trunk Railway Company of Canada.

The Grand Trunk system as now consolidated comprises lines of railway under one control, extending from Chicago to the Atlantic sea-board at Portland. By its connections it affords through traffic facilities between Chicago and New York, Boston, and all points in the Eastern and New England States. At Chicago, by means of the Chicago and Western Indiana and the Belt Line, the Grand Trunk lines interchange traffic with all the Western and North-Western roads.

In Canada, the Grand Trunk reaches almost every town in the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, and, by its eastern connection, the Intercolonial Railway, it interchanges traffic to and from the provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island.

The Company has long and naturally cultivated its ocean steamship alliances, and was the first to introduce the system of issuing through Bills of Lading. The services to Liverpool, Glasgow, Bristol, London, and other European parts, via the St. Lawrence and the American maritime termini, complete the international character of this great undertaking.



ST. CLAIR TUNNEL.

Through fast freight lines operate over the Grand Trunk system, giving facilities for prompt transportation of every description of produce, merchandise, live stock, etc., between all important points in the West and the East.

It is, however, to the tourist's ear that the romance of the road is told. It would be difficult to find in any other part of the world a railway of an equal length which offers to the traveller so great a variety of attractions, whether we consider the wonders of scenery revealed, or the triumphs of scientific and engineering skill which overcame vast natural obstacles in its progress.

Chief among these latter are the Victoria Bridge across the St. Lawrence at Montreal, and the St. Clair river railway tunnel.

The Victoria Bridge was opened to traffic on December 17, 1859. It is a tubular structure of magnificent proportions, having twenty-three arches. In its style, it is the greatest bridge in the world, the only structure of the same nature which at all approaches it, being the Britannia Bridge over the Menai Strait in Wales.

The tunnel above mentioned was completed nearly four years ago. It is the greatest work of the kind on the American Continent, and its construction was watched with interest by scientific men in all parts of the civilized world. The idea of the tunnel was conceived, and the work was projected by Sir Henry Tyler, who was at that time president of the Grand Trunk Railway Company. The responsibility of carrying out the work from inception to completion rested with Mr. Joseph Hobson, the chief engineer of the Southern division of the Grand Trunk Railway. Some figures in connection with this remarkable work may not be out of place here; the length of the tunnel from portal to portal is 6,025 feet; the length under the river bed is 2,290 feet; the tunnel is a perfect circle with an interior diameter of 19 feet 10 inches. The tunnel was built and is owned by the St. Clair Tunnel Company, organized under special Act of Parliament.

The country traversed by and tributary to the Grand Trunk Railway possesses never-ending attractions for both tourist and emigrant. It is but a few decades since Canada was supposed by the average European to be for the most part locked in ice, to be a land where the settler had to dispute his possession with the Indian and the savage beast. To-day, it is to the improved travelling facilities that we owe an altered state of things. Our cities and towns teem with a prosperous, energetic and intelligent people. From all parts of the world the reputed wonders of our scenery continue to attract the pleasure-loving and the curious, whilst



SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

for the sportsman, the lakes, rivers and forests offer inexhaustible spoil for rod and gun.

The summer visitor is landed at Quebec, or rather at Point Levis, the terminus of the Grand Trunk Railway. It is directly opposite the ancient capital of Canada which is to all intents a seventeenth century French town, beautiful, and laden with the best romance of Canadian history. Near by are the Plains of Abraham, consecrated by the blood of Wolfe. In the Ursuline Convent are the remains of his gallant antagonist, Montcalm. Eight miles away, a compact mass of water, the Montmorency Falls, is hurled two hundred and fifty feet without a break, over a sheer rock. Other Falls are the Lorette and the Chaudière.

To reach Montreal from Quebec, the traveller must cross the Victoria Bridge already mentioned. It is just outside Montreal.

Montreal, the Canadian metropolis, is one of the handsomest cities in America. Its beautiful situation, the sylvan loveliness of its natural parks are world famed. The marvellous panorama viewed from the summit of Mount Royal, once seen, is never forgotten.

The White Mountain range, situated in New Hampshire, is a popular summer resort of both Canadians and Americans. The scenery is Alpine. A railway winds around Mount Washington, from the summit of which a 600 mile horizon is commanded. The Grand Trunk line from Montreal to Portland passes through the

heart of this wonderful region, bringing it within easy reach of travellers landing either in Canada or in the United States.

That remarkable archipelago, the Thousand Islands, is one of the sights of Canada. It dots the St. St. Lawrence, extending from Kingston some forty miles down to Brockville.

The Grand Trunk gives direct access to the celebrated Niagara Falls, and from its Suspension Bridge, the tourist can obtain an idea of the grandeur of the scenery about this interesting locality.

Another attractive section reached by the Grand Trunk line is the Muskoka Lake region, lying north of Toronto. These lakes are dotted with islands, and have much the appearance of the Thousand Islands of the St. Lawrence.

The Bonaventure depot at Montreal, the headquarters of the Grand Trunk Railway, is a splendid structure which was completed in 1888, at a cost of \$300,000. The general waiting room is a magnificent apartment about sixty feet square, having a ceiling forty-four feet high, and all the departments are equipped in the most modern style.

Anyone looking at the map of Ontario will be struck with the remarkable net work which the Grand



SHOOTING LACHINE RAPIDS.

Trunk lines now form throughout the province. The thoroughness with which the country is covered and the public served here is unexampled in any railway system on this continent, or perhaps in the world. Few realize what a factor this railway has been in the settlement of the country, and in the development of its resources. In 1853, when the Grand Trunk had its beginning, the population of Canada was only 2,313,000; but, since that time, hundreds of villages and hamlets along the line have become cities and towns, with thriving populations and busy factories. Many of these centres of trade and manufacture have, indeed, been the direct result of the rapid and cheap means of transit afforded by the railway. A consideration of such facts will show how powerful and beneficent a force the Grand Trunk has been in the commercial progress of Canada. Indeed, the Grand Trunk Railway Company has not only contributed to the well-being of Canada, but has a wide and popular American reputation, and exercises a large influence in the railway councils of the continent.

Sir Henry Tyler, who was president of the company for upwards of twenty years and carried the railway through a great many troubles, was, at the last meeting of shareholders which took place May 5th, 1895, outvoted, and Sir Charles Rivers Wilson, who was appointed by the board of directors to succeed him, is a gentleman well known in financial affairs in England, and it is expected that under the guidance of new blood a turn



BONAVENTURE DEPOT, MONTREAL.

for the better will be seen in the affairs of the Grand Trunk Railway, which has, like all other railways on this continent, although not to the extent of most of them, felt the effects of the long continued stagnation in business.

A glance at the following statement will give the reader some idea of how the railway business in the United States has been effected during the last few years, owing to the stagnation of trade in that country. Seventy-six railways, or one-third of the total railway mileage of the United States, were placed in the hands of the receiver last year. The aggregation of capital of these roads amounted to \$1,738,000,000. Twenty-three railways were sold under foreclosure representing a capital of \$79,924,000.

Taking the above facts into consideration and the existing state of affairs in connection with the United States railways, it is not at all surprising that the Grand Trunk Railway Company of Canada should have suffered to some extent.

The following are the names of the board of directors:—Sir Charles Rivers Wilson, G.C.M.G., C.V., President; Joseph Price, Vice-President, George Allan, John A. Clutton Brock, George W. Schauvin, Alexander Hubbard, Col. Frederic Firebrace, Sir Henry Mather Jackson, Bart., Alfred W. Smithers, Right Honorable Lord Welby, G.C.B., Sir W. L. Young, Bart.

Mr. L. J. Seargeant, the General Manager, has had vast experience as a railroad manager both in England and here. His course has been marked by a judicial fairness and moderation, most requisite for the satisfactory performance of the duties of his responsible position. In his official intercourse with representatives of other trunk lines, he has strongly advocated the division of traffic between the railways interested, instead of an unwise competition, most hurtful to the public.

He is ably supported by a staff of officers who are all well-known as men of large experience in their different departments, and who are thoroughly conversant with all the details of the work connected with such an important and gigantic railway system as that of the Grand Trunk.



SPEECH OF THE HON. JOHN HAGGART,

MINISTER OF RAILWAYS AND CANALS, DELIVERED IN THE DOMINION HOUSE OF COMMONS, MAY 7TH, 1895,
IN REPLY TO SIR RICHARD CARTWRIGHT.

On rising, Mr. Haggart was received with rousing cheers. He said: Mr. Speaker, I will state, for the information of the House, that the policy of the Government is the policy which was enunciated in 1878, and which has been followed down to the present time; that the Government is at present a Government in favor of protection, and it intends to follow that policy and to appeal to the people on that line. (Cheers.) The gallant knight (Sir R. Cartwright), stated that the Finance Minister made no reference whatever to that policy, and also that he looked with alarm on the state of depression that existed from one end of the country to the other, that the country was in a more depressed condition than it was in 1878. The gallant knight does not seem to be aware that people all over the world, and especially on the other side of the line, have declared that Canada has weathered the storm of depression which has swept over the world better than any other country that can be mentioned. I will give the gallant knight some of the statements made to show him how this country has improved, and although it may, perhaps, be a little tiresome to deal with figures on this point, it is necessary I should do so in order to present to the country a comparison of the condition of the Dominion now as compared with 1878. I shall also show the hon. gentleman evidences of prosperity of the country. It will be remembered that the gallant knight stated that deposits in savings banks did not afford evidence of prosperity. Let me quote from the hon. gentleman's speeches on that point. Perhaps he has obtained better light now than some years ago, when he declared that one of the tests of prosperity was the amount of deposits in savings banks. Let the hon. gentleman refer to any political economist, and he will find that strongest evidence of prosperity is to be found in the increased savings of the people as evidenced by savings bank deposits. (Hear, hear.) If the hon. gentleman has no faith in himself or in political economists, let him read the speech delivered by Sir William Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in the English House of Commons, when, in referring to the depression which has spread over England, and mentioning the decrease which had occurred in exports, he declared that the country was sound, and that one of the best evidences was the increased deposits in the different savings banks. Undoubtedly that is one of the evidences of prosperity in a country, and in the Government savings banks of the Dominion we have striking evidence afforded by the savings of the people, now amounting in deposits to the enormous sum of \$297,000,000.

Another test of wealth and prosperity is the amount of raw material imported into a country for the purposes of being manufactured. Let me make a comparison between 1881 and 1891 as regards the amount of raw material coming into Canada. Of wool alone, in 1881, the import was 6,930,000 pounds; in 1891 it was 10,503,000 pounds; of cottons, 8,011,759 pounds; in 1891, 40,263,333 pounds; of raw sugar, in 1881, 19,876,872 pounds; in 1891, 252,644,000 pounds. The same remark applies to hides, rubber, jute, veneers, hemp, raw silk, broom corn, there being an enormous increase in each of these articles. Now, let me answer some of the criticisms in regard to the census which the hon. gentleman has so profusely indulged in this afternoon.

The number of industrial establishments in the country in 1891 was 49,923, and in 1881 they had increased to 75,768. The capital invested in 1881 was \$165,302,625, and that has increased in 1891 to an invested capital of \$353,836,817. The number of employees in 1881 was 254,935, whereas the number of employees in 1891 was 367,865. The wages paid in 1881 amounted to \$59,429,002, and the wages paid in 1891 amounted to \$99,762,441. The cost of raw material—this is a true test, Sir, of the growth of the manufactures of this country, it is as true a test as possibly can be applied to the increase in a country's wealth—the cost of raw materials increased from \$179,918,593 in 1881 to \$255,983,219 in 1891. The value of products in 1881 was \$309,607,068, and that had increased in 1891 to \$475,455,705.

Let us also judge by the total trade of the country, how it has increased from 1878 to 1894. Notwithstanding the decreases in value of the present time, compared with the year 1878, our total trade has grown from \$153,000,000 in the latter year to \$240,500,000 in the year which has closed. (Loud cheers.) Look at the interprovincial trade of Canada. Look at the immense trade which has sprung up in the different provinces of the country, a trade which has increased, as estimated, from \$2,000,000 in 1867 to \$125,000,000 in 1894.

The farming operations and agricultural wealth of the country has increased from \$882,000,000 in 1882 to \$979,000,000 in 1892. (Loud Ministerial applause.) If any other evidence is wanted of the progress of the country, of the commercial development of the country, and of the increased wealth of the country, the railway statistics show it.

CANADA'S PROSPERITY AS EVIDENCED BY RAILWAY STATISTICS.

Let me make a comparison between the years 1878 and 1894 in this respect. There were 6,143 miles of railway in operation in the country in 1878, and there are 15,627 miles at the present day.

The credit of Canada stands first and foremost of all countries in the world, except, perhaps, the mother land. Financial men, who are the best judges of our resources and of the financial condition of the country, put our securities as high and higher than most of the other countries in the world. (Cheers.) We are higher than all the sister colonies, and we stand higher than those friends of the hon. gentlemen in the Republic to the south of us. Only to the mother country herself does Canada rank second. Our 3 per cent securities are selling, if I am informed rightly, at between 99 and 100 in the London market.

We are told of the depreciation in values in this country. But let us compare the losses in this country with the losses on the other side. It is true that there has been a depreciation of securities of all kinds in this country, but it is slight in comparison with the depreciation in the neighboring country, and other countries of the world. Seventy-six railways, or one-third of the total railway mileage of the United States, were placed in the hands of the receiver last year. These aggregated a capital of \$1,758,000,000. Twenty-three railways were sold under foreclosure, representing a capital of \$79,924,000. I could refer the hon. gentleman to the sister colonies, to England itself, to Belgium, to France, to Spain, Italy, and a host of other countries, to show that the depreciation in Canada has been much less severely felt; and that I maintain is due to the fiscal policy of this Government. (Applause.)

The items which constitute public debt are the expenditure on the Intercolonial Railway (\$44,000,000 or \$45,000,000), the amount of indebtedness of the different provinces assumed, the expenditure upon the canals, and the expenditure upon the Canadian Pacific Railway. Did not the hon. gentleman build most of the canals himself? Did not his party, when in power, consent to the building of the Intercolonial? As to the indebtedness of the different provinces, was it not a compact with them, and was that not agreed to, universally, in this House? The total amount of that debt hon. gentlemen are responsible for. Was not the hon. gentleman, and was not his party, bound to that expenditure of \$45,000,000 on the Intercolonial Railway? Were not the Hon. George Brown and the other leaders parties to the compact with the provinces under which that road was to be built? Was not the assumption of the debt of the provinces one of the terms of confederation? Was not the expenditure upon the canals—a large portion of it made between 1875 and 1878—agreed to by hon. gentlemen opposite? And does the hon. gentleman object to the expenditure we made for the purpose of obtaining the Canadian Pacific Railway? His party are as proud of that work as we are on this side of the House; and they know that it could not have been made for a less expenditure of money, or of land. The friends of the hon. gentleman tried to get contractors to build it for even more, and could find nobody to accept their terms. Therefore, I say that the debt of the country, which is represented by these four items, these gentlemen are as much responsible for as any member of the Government?

The additions to the debt since 1878-79 increased the expenditure on account of interest and sinking fund by \$4,600,000. If the hon. gentleman and his party come into power, must they not pay that amount? Then there are increases in the subsidies to provinces—\$800,000 and \$30,000, added the other day, increased subsidy to Manitoba. These two items, on account of debt and provincial subsidies, hon. gentlemen opposite will certainly have to pay if they get into power. Then there are the increases in the earning departments of Government—Railways, Canals, and Post Office.

These increases amount to about \$4,000,000. The hon. gentleman knows that this is a matter of book-keeping. Take, for instance, the Intercolonial. The total earnings are turned into the treasury of the country, and the total expenditures are covered by the estimates passed by this House. With this item of \$4,000,000 added to the others, we have a total of \$9,400,000. The expenditure in 1878 was \$24,455,000. Add the increases I have given, and you have the smallest sum which gentlemen opposite, if they were in power, could expend in the administration of public affairs.

It is proposed to establish a system of taxation on the principle of a tariff for revenue only. I accept the definition given by the hon. member for Queen's (Mr. Davies), who declared that there were three systems of taxation—one is free trade, another tariff for revenue only, and another a protective system. I am quoting from memory from the statement that the hon. member made, and if I am not right I shall be glad to be cor-

rected. Free trade, he stated, was unattainable at present. There was, he said, no country in the world which had a system of pure free trade. The system which they had in England, he added, was a tariff for revenue purposes. But the goal of the hon. gentleman was to adopt a system similar to what they have now in England, and to impose the incidents of taxation upon the people of this country. I tell hon. gentlemen opposite that they dare not state from one section of the country to the other that they intended to raise taxes in Canada the same as they do in England. (Loud cheers.) I am taking the natural sequence of the amendment of the hon. gentleman, in which he states that they intend to raise the taxes for revenue only, and the logical sequence of the statement of the hon. gentleman is, that that would be done by a system of taxation similar to that of England. I am not imputing any statement to the hon. gentleman, but I am drawing the deductions myself. Now, let us see what is meant by "taxation the same as they have in England."

Mr. Speaker, I wish to draw your attention to the system of taxation they have in England. The customs taxation in England is raised on nine articles only, namely:—tobacco, £9,948,809; tea, £3,418,162; rum, £2,335,147; brandy, £1,423,826; spirits, £668,921; wine, £1,921,052; currants, £113,994; coffee, £177,206; and raisins, £175,957; the whole customs taxes of England is levied on these articles. Do hon. gentlemen opposite propose that the customs taxation in this country will be raised on similar articles? No, Sir; the people of this country would not submit to anything of that kind. It is but to be mentioned and understood in Canada that such is the policy, and the people will have none of it.

In England the incidents of taxation do not fall on the rich, as ought to be the case, and bear lightly upon the poor. Does not the poor man in this country use as much tobacco as the rich man? Does not the poor man in this country use as much tea as the rich man, although it may be of an inferior quality? Does not he use as much rum as the rich man? Perhaps he does not use as much brandy, perhaps more spirits, less wine, perhaps as much coffee, and probably less raisins. The incidents of taxation upon the people of the country, as it is known to be in England, is a specific tax, or a tax per capita upon the people. In England the poor man pays as much as the rich man does under their systems of levying the customs taxes. Do hon. gentlemen opposite intend to levy the customs taxes in Canada in a manner similar to what they are levied in England? I tell them that they dare not do any such thing. (Applause.) It may be asked why they levy the taxes in this manner in England, it must be remembered, but then they correct it in another way. They correct it by the following taxes, which are levied entirely upon the rich:—The Probate Duty, the Legacy Duty, the Estate Duty, the Succession Tax, the Deeds, the Receipts, the Bills of Exchange, the Patent Medicines (which, perhaps, do not fall so much on the rich), the Licenses, the Companies Capital Duty, the Marine Insurance, other stamps. And then, as other taxation, the Land tax, the House tax, the Income tax (which the poor man does not pay at all), and the Post Office tax, which he, perhaps, pays less of than the rich man. They correct the levying of the taxation in England by a special impost upon the rich men of the country, but the Customs tax is largely paid by the poor. In England there is a specific tax, or a per capita tax, and the people of Canada have only to understand the system and no Government in this country dare put on a tax such as that, nor dare they supplement it by a direct tax, such as the hon. gentlemen opposite propose to-day. (Applause.) Therefore, I state that if the policy of hon. gentlemen opposite means a system of taxation such as they have in that country, the people of Canada will not submit to it.

The policy of the Canadian people has been declared again and again in favor of incidental protection to the manufactures of the country. (Cheers.) It is the policy of the American continent. Last session, or the session before, when the Democratic party got into power in the United States, hon. gentlemen were constantly vaunting—"Oh, protection is gone forever, we are going to have continual free trade forever, and if we get into power in Canada we shall have a system of free trade, levy the taxes directly, and have reciprocal arrangements with the different countries of America." A more absurd statement was never made to an intelligent audience. (Hear, hear.) If we were to have free trade in Canada, and allow the products of other countries of the world to enter free, what compensation would the people of the United States, or of any other country, have for allowing our products to go into their country free. Such a proposition has only to be stated and understood to be laughed at by every intelligent people. (Loud applause.) Everyone knows the great success of the Republican party of the United States at the last election, when the Democrats were swept out of office by a cyclone such as never struck any political party in the world. The people of the United States have declared in favor of a protective system, and a protective system must be the policy of this country for a number of years to come.

The hon. member for Oxford (Sir Richard Cartwright) chaffed the Minister of Finance that he had not said a word about the National Policy. Well, the policy of this party has been defined by the resolutions of 1878, and is still stuck to, and approved of, by the people of this country. That policy is to protect any manu-

factures which may be peculiar to the country, which may be produced in this country by a system of protection as cheaply as they can be imported from any other country, although, in the meantime, in order to obtain that, the impost upon the people may be in excess of what they could get it for from other countries. There is the promise to the people of this country that we will protect our manufactures, and the promise of the manufacturers is : we will give, after a time, the protected manufactures to the people at as cheap a price as they can be imported from any other country. (Cheers.) Now, how have they carried out their promise?

The four or five principal articles manufactured in Canada are woollen goods, cotton goods, leather goods, manufactures of agricultural implements, and the different industries of which iron is the component part. What I state is, and I state it boldly, that for the same quality of woollen goods, the people of Canada receive for their money as fair value as they do in any other part of the world. Am I correct in that? Do they not get it cheaper than the people of the United States?

I have heard the same statement made with reference to woollen and cotton goods. The test of the cheapness of cotton goods in the country is the ability to export them and put them into successful competition in a foreign market with similar goods from free trade countries. Is not that the test that they are being manufactured in the country as cheaply as they could be imported into the country?

In regard to leather goods, Canadian manufacturers make boots and shoes as cheaply as they are made in any other country in the world. (Loud cheers.) Are we not exporting those goods and selling them in free trade England? Are we not manufacturing the leather in this country and selling it in the old country? Do we not send agricultural implements to Australia, New Zealand, and all other countries in the world, and sell them more cheaply than any other country? Do we not buy sugar in this country as cheaply as it can be bought in any other country? and it is all manufactured in the country. (Prolonged applause.)

There is one industry, the product of which I will admit at present costs more here than in other countries, that is, the iron industry. At present there is a bounty on iron, and we also impose a duty on iron coming into the country; but we say to the people of Canada: You are at present paying a little more for your iron goods, but the time will come, and come shortly, when we shall be able to furnish you with iron goods manufactured in this country as cheaply as they are imported into the country.

Let me, by way of example, show how the protective duty on iron has operated in the United States. In that country there is a customs duty of from \$5 to \$20 per ton on different kinds of iron and steel goods imported into the country. The hon. gentleman's argument is, that that duty is added to the price at which the consumer could obtain the goods from outside countries, because the manufacturers in the country just keep the price up to the point at which the goods could be brought in, plus the duty. But what has been the case in the United States? Notwithstanding the high duty imposed upon pig iron coming into the country, the people of the United States have pig iron furnished to them from Alabama and Georgia cheaper than it can be bought in any other country in the world. It is sold in Alabama and Georgia for a little more than \$6 ton, while the customs duty is about \$5 a ton. Some of the manufacturers in the city of Toronto are able, notwithstanding our duty, to purchase pig iron in the Southern States and pay the duty and bring it to Toronto, in competition with English iron and iron from other countries.

Not only that, but the Americans are sending pig iron from Alabama and Georgia to enter into competition with the product of the cheapest iron manufactories in the world. They are sending it to Antwerp and London, where it is being sold in competition with German, Belgian, and English pig iron. What does the *Iron Age*, a paper published in London, state in reference to this matter? Owing to the competition of Germany and Belgium in the manufacture of pig iron, the iron manufacturers of Free Trade England have formed a combine, under which a certain percentage of the price paid for every rail that is sold in England or in any other part of the world, is paid to the German and Belgian manufacturers; and now the *Iron Age* states that they will be obliged to take another nation into the combine, because the people of the United States are sending their pig iron over to England to enter into competition with the English product. (Cheers.) What the advocates of the National Policy in this country say to the people of Canada is this:

Protect our industries for a short time; it is true you will perhaps pay a little more for the article manufactured in the country, but the result will be that after a while you will get your iron here as cheap as you can anywhere else, because we have the coal or the natural gas with which to manufacture iron in the country; we have abundance of iron ore, and we have the authority of two of the most illustrious of our friends in the Liberal party in favor of protecting the iron industry of Canada; we have the leader of the Liberals in the province of Ontario bonusing an institution for the manufacture of iron in the city of Hamilton; we promise, as in the case of woollen, leather, and cotton goods, agricultural implements, and other great industries of the country, that a judicious system of protection will, in a few years, result in the establishment of iron manufactories, by which the skilled labor and the capital will be retained in the country, and the product will be sold

to the consumer at as low a price as he can import it at from any other country. (Loud applause.) What is the reason, then, the hon. gentleman asks, why you put imposts upon cotton and woollen goods brought into the country? The reason is this. In a small country like this the duty does not prevent foreign goods coming in.

A diversity of industries of innumerable kinds is required to enable manufacturers to manufacture goods as cheaply as they could be imported from the country which has the largest market and the largest manufacturing, and it is not necessary that foreign goods should be entirely prevented from coming in. The policy of this Government is, that the protection granted should be placed at such a point as not to prevent all articles of the kind protected from coming into the country—why? For this simple reason, that the protection is a stimulus to cheap production. It improves the design; it increases the skill of the worker: it results in better machinery being used; and there is a certain amount of competition with foreign goods. (Cheers.) Moreover, we are enabled by the import duties to levy a certain amount of money for the purpose of carrying on the Government of the country. What would be the result, then, if the hon. gentlemen got into power?

If, as they say, they will never rest content until they sweep away every vestige of protection in this country, such a catastrophe will happen to this country as might never happen to any country in the world. The whole manufacturing class would be swept away at one blow. (Hear, hear.) We would be left a purely agricultural country, and the history shows beyond cavil that a country without diversified industries is necessarily a poor one. They dare not do it, even should they get into power. If they should do it, their own following would receive such a correction from the electorate, from one end of the country to the other, that they would not remain in office a week. (Ministerial applause.) Is it possible that they would be so insane, if they should get into power, as to attempt to carry out the pledge they have made by a solemn resolution? We have heard the promises they have made with reference to commercial union and unrestricted reciprocity, and we know how quickly they changed front on these and other questions, so that we are justified in concluding that they will again be equal to the occasion. But God help this country if such a catastrophe should ever happen us as the sweeping away of every vestige of protection. (Hear, hear, and cheers.) With the same blow all the capital invested in manufacturing would be swept out of existence. Perhaps I have dwelt too long upon this question and wearied the House.

The question is, after all, one which will be decided at the polls. There the fiscal question will be the main issue. There may be endeavors in one section of the country and another to raise the religious cry, but the people are too intelligent to be thus deceived. The only live issue before them is the fiscal question, and I venture to say when that is put fairly before the people, they will support the policy which has been enunciated by the Finance Minister of the Government. (Loud and prolonged applause.)



W. W. OGILVIE.

"ALWAYS LED, LEAD NOW, AND EVER WILL LEAD."

THE name of "Ogilvie" has been for centuries associated in Scottish annals with deeds of knightly daring. It rings in ballad and song of old times, and history tells of many an Ogilvie, whose prowess assisted to shape the destinies of his native land.

W. W. Ogilvie, of Montreal, the "Napoleon of the Milling trade of Canada," is of Scottish extraction, and is descended from a younger brother of Gilchrist, Earl of Angus, who flourished in the thirteenth century. This scion of the House of Angus was a valiant soldier, who, being rewarded by the crown with the lands of Ogilvie in Banffshire, assumed the name of the estate.

The truth of the old adage, "Blood will tell," has never been better exemplified than in the person and life of W. W. Ogilvie. He has inherited from his illustrious ancestors indomitable pluck and perseverance, with extraordinary tenacity and enterprise. He was born in Montreal and is heart and soul of the people. He has proved again and again that their interests are his, and that the possession of immense wealth and almost unbounded influence has not made a wall of separation between him and the associates of his boyhood. He has been the architect of the fortunes of the Canadian Ogilvies, and has, in his upward course, carried with him more of the good will and kindly regards of his fellow-citizens than usually falls to the lot of the magnates of to-day. Many are the stories told in illustration of his humor, of his benevolence, and of the living, ready sympathy which is the true explanation of his position in public esteem. The following anecdote, related by Lord Aberdeen at a St. Andrew's Day Celebration in New York, shows that in him as in all genuine men, the love of the ancestral land burns bright. Mr. Ogilvie was once, while travelling in Europe, starting in to do Turkey, and in his passport had himself described as a Scottish gentleman. It proved such a difficulty to the Turkish officials that they hesitated to honor the passport. They had heard of English gentlemen, and gentlemen from other parts of the world, but this was beyond them. In their despair they explained the situation to Mr. Ogilvie, and asked what he really was—What was a Scottish gentleman? and the story runs that he made answer, "A Scotchman is a superior kind of Englishman," a reply which was at once accepted as perfectly satisfactory.

Mr. W. W. Ogilvie's grandfather came to Canada in 1801, and immediately, with his sons, became interested in milling and agriculture, purchasing some of the finest farms in the district of Montreal, one of them being that part of the city known as Point St. Charles. They built the Jacques-Cartier Mill near Quebec, which was the first mill in Canada to export flour to Europe. They were also interested in the mill at Lachine Rapids. In the same year, 1801, they built the first large bakery erected in Montreal on the site now occupied by the Balmoral Hotel. The deed described the property as being on "the King's highway leading to Lachine near Montreal." At that time wheat was purchased from the farmers on the market place, now Custom House Square, carted to the mill, and the flour carted back to the city.

The business thrived mightily, passing in the course of time into the hands of sons and grandsons. As the supply of wheat increased with the increasing population, so did the business of the Ogilvies.

In 1832, Mr. W. W. Ogilvie and his brothers, the Hon. A. W. and John, built the Glenora Mill on the Lachine Canal, and subsequently their mills in Goderich, Seaforth and Winnipeg. A little later they erected the Royal Mill in Montreal. These five mills commanded the best wheats in the Dominion.

At an early age of his business operations, Mr. Ogilvie gave evidence of his faith in the future of the North-West Provinces by the attention he gave to milling and the trade in grain in Manitoba, gradually extending his observations further westward. He early entered the field as a buyer of Manitoba wheat, and when, in 1876, his shipments did not exceed 500 bushels, the shipments to his own mills in 1890-91 were in excess of four million bushels, whilst for 1891-92 they exceeded by large figures all previous records. By 1892 he had found it necessary to erect twenty-seven elevators at various leading points to meet the needs of his operations.

The introduction, under most favorable auspices, of Mr. Ogilvie's enterprise in the North-West, was a

turning point in the history of agriculture in the new country. No man can occupy a position such as Mr. Ogilvie's, and not exercise an influence, almost incalculable in its results, over the fortunes of tens of thousands of his fellow-men. His misfortune would be their ruin; his wonderful prosperity has meant in many cases their wealth, and always, at least, their comfort and security. These facts are recognized by Mr. Ogilvie when he tends the powerful support of his approval to the policy of protection. He upholds the Protective tariff, believing that to it is owing his own prosperity, and the prosperity of that large portion of the population, benefitted directly or indirectly by his immense operations. To protect the manufacturer's interests is to protect also the interests of those employed by him. Twenty years ago it may be observed that Mr. Ogilvie's business was small compared with what it is to-day. When it is considered what immense strides it has made, and to what gigantic proportions it has grown in that time, and how slow it previously moved, it must be assumed that there is some cause for the change. No other reason for it can be assigned but the adoption of the National Policy 18 years ago. The prosperity of Mr. Ogilvie's business alone should be sufficient to convince the people of the Dominion that a protective tariff is absolutely necessary for the prosperity of this Canada of ours. Under a revenue tariff, Mr. Ogilvie owned one, the Glenora Mill, at St. Gabriel Locks, Montreal, and no elevator; under the protective tariff, the country is dotted with his mills from Montreal to Winnipeg; he also owns ten new ones in course of the man who buys the him to buy more grain, thus thereby enriching the agriculture milling trade in the argument in favour of a toban farmers stood last better than those of any try on this continent. every bushel of wheat they bushel. The year was in December Mr. Ogilvie laring, a second time, his for the erection of six new

The well-known enter-own interpretation, that in be satisfied with nothing machinery that milling ma-He was among the first to into his several mills, having was invented, in 1868, was put into practical work-

A few words of ex-improved method of milling may not here be out of place. Hardly any manufacture of a generation ago was so simple as milling. The miller dropped his wheat into a hopper, millstones beneath, swiftly ground it into a product from which, there and then, flour was separated by bolting cloth. Fragments of wheat that had only been partly ground, and so could not pass through the meshes of the cloth, were passed between the millstones a second time. Contrasted with this simple, direct way of making flour, is the elaborate roller process. Simplicity is so important a feature in machinery that had the old-time mill been as economical as it was simple, its quick and ready methods would never have been discarded. But the fault in these methods was that, considering the real complexity of the work to be done, they were too simple. Millstones running, as they usually did, closely together, wasted some of the wheats' best elements, and left sticking to the bran, no small percentage of good flour. Now, the rollers open out the grain's crease so completely that the separation of the flour is an easy matter, even when spring wheat, with its brittle covering, forms the grist. While mills of the Hungarian type employ series of rollers to reduce the wheat, their efficiency and economy are equally due to their separating machinery. As a rule the rollers are of chilled iron. Watching a pair of them at work, we see that one revolves faster than the other, so that a grain of wheat caught on the projection of a slow roller is stretched out, or unfolded by the projection of the quick one. A point to which the miller pays especial attention is keeping these rollers at the right distance apart. If too far from each other, they will take no hold of the wheat; if too near, they mash it into flakes



forty-two elevators, and has construction. To protect farmer's grain, is to enable increasing the market and culturist. The history of North-West is one loud protective tariff. The Mani-year's depression in wheat other wheat growing coun-Although the price was low, produced was a marketable called a hard one, yet called for tenders for en-Winnipeg Mills, and also elevators.

prise of the man carries its his different mills he could short of thenewest and best nufacturers can produce. introduce the roller process gone to Hungary, where it shortly after the process ing.

planation regarding this

unfit for the succeeding process. Clearly then it is desirable that the grain submitted to the rollers should be as nearly of a size as possible. As a rule spring wheat is small, and winter wheat large, but whatever the variety of the grain, it is usual to divide it into two sizes before the rolling process begins. For this purpose a revolving cylinder is employed. The grist passes from one set of rollers to another, and gradually finer and finer product is revealed. The adoption of the Hungarian process has revolutionised the milling trade in this country. Nor must the fact be overlooked that the system has here been improved in many ways.

In 1891, W. W. Ogilvie purchased for a quarter of a million the "City Flouring Mill," till then owned by Messrs. Ira Gould & Sons. At the time of this transaction, characterized by the press as "a big deal," the capacity of the City Mills was 1,100 barrels per day, with elevator storage capacity of 200,000 bushels, and they are considered the best situated in America, having a frontage of 230 feet on the port of Montreal, and a frontage of 240 feet in the main basin of the Lachine Canal, ramps leading to the port on each side, and the Grand Trunk Railway running through it, affording unequal receiving and shipping facilities. One of the consequences of this important transaction is that Montreal can claim the honour of being the headquarters of the milling industry, with a larger capacity than any other individual firm in the world.

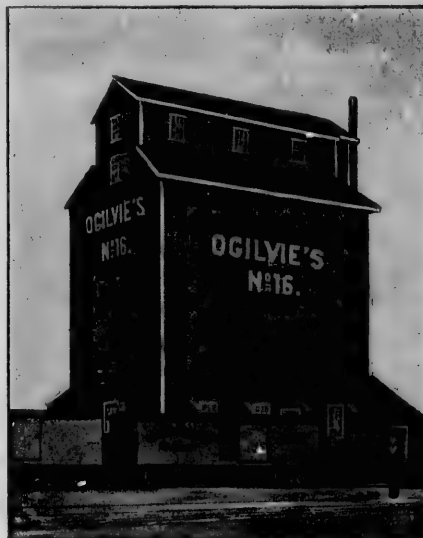
The lofty position which of the greatest millers of minence given to the Do- of that fact, cannot be over by the following extracts, appeared two years ago in *Western Miller*, of Minnea- Triumvirate of Millers."

Asked to name the world who are pre-eminent, and the amount of flour scarcely choose but select—United States, W. W. Haggenmacher of Hungary. general public familiar with the milling trade in their names are household words whether at home or abroad, them, it would not only be rival to make more flour, vidual, one-name personal tremendous amount of ex- of advertising, the marked millers named have secured

simply because they have given personality to their own business, pushed their advantage hard, and early associated their names with the idea of flour in the minds of a large number of people. After describing the success obtained by Mr. Pillsbury in the milling business in the United States, it goes on to say:

"What is true of Mr. Pillsbury in the United States is true of Mr. Ogilvie in Canada—in fact he is frequently called the Pillsbury of Canada. There may be other mills in the Dominion making better flour; but their contention must be that their product is equal to or better than Ogilvie's, and therein is a subtle admission that his flour stands for the trade, and this admission, it cannot be denied, makes for his good." After speaking of Mr. Haggenmacher, it goes on to say: "This article is in itself an illustration of the very fact we are speaking of. We want to present in one group the three men who can be chosen as the biggest millers in the three countries named. We are not selecting the prettiest, the wittiest and the wisest, as the children's game has it, but just three who would represent in the ordinary mind the idea of milling, and, whether we like it or not, we are forced to choose these three. We have no choice in the matter, and it is either take these three or abandon the idea, for other individuals that might be mentioned either lose by cooperation or association, thereby sinking their personality, or lack the amount in daily capacity of flour made to rank as the pre-eminent one man in the country."

Further on, in speaking of Mr. Ogilvie, the article says: "One who enjoys close acquaintance with Mr.



Mr. Ogilvie occupies as one the world, and the pro- minion of Canada by reason estimated, as will be seen taken from an article which a holiday issue of the *North polis*, (Minn.), entitled "A

three largest millers in the both by their individuality they manufacture, one could Chas. A. Pillsbury of the Ogilvie of Canada, and Carl In the estimation of the flour, these men stand for respective countries. Their wherever their flour is sold, and, in order to displace necessary for an ambitious but to make it as an indi- flour, and to overcome, by a pensive activity in the way advantage which the three at comparatively little cost,

Ogilvie and his methods, states that what he does not know concerning wheat, wheat land and flour is not worth knowing. He travelled Canada's wheat fields years before they were utilized, and has done so hundreds of times since, and, naturally, has always been so well informed, that whenever he desired to erect a mill he did so in the best place possible. He was the pioneer wheat buyer in Manitoba, and has contributed largely to the development of that province. An idea of the magnitude of Mr. Ogilvie's business may be had from the fact that, notwithstanding that he has the best labor-saving machinery, he paid last year \$226,000 in wages alone. Mr. Ogilvie's method of conducting his huge milling business has always been of a very advanced sort, the greatest care being taken, and no expense spared to keep the mills in the most improved and modern condition. For selling the product of this immense concern, agents are located in all parts of Canada and Great Britain, the consequence being that the Ogilvie flours are widely and favorably known. Mr. Ogilvie has not, however, always confined his operations to Canada, for, after buying wheat at an early date in most of the wheat districts of that country which were then settled, he went to Chicago in 1856, and was among the first to ship wheat from Chicago to Canada. Shortly after the railway was completed from Chicago to Gellina, he began buying on the Mississippi, and shortly after the completion of the Mississippi and Lake Superior railway, he shipped wheat up the Mississippi river from Red Wing, Winona and Hastings by barge to Stillwater, thence by railway to Duluth, and east by the lakes. He was the first to ship wheat out of Manitoba, bringing it up the Red River by boat to Fargo, and from there by the Northern Pacific railway to Duluth.

Up to the present, Mr. Ogilvie has purchased more than half of all the wheat grown in Manitoba and the North-West. During recent years he has shipped largely to Japan, enabled so to do by the facilities afforded by our great trans-continental line, the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Mr. Ogilvie stands very high with the settlers of Manitoba, and the North-West provinces. Beyond a doubt much of their prosperity they owe to the enormous enterprise which he conducts personally. Many are the proofs recounted by them of the just dealings of the Company, and also of the ability and consideration always evinced by Mr. F. W. Thompson, the General-Manager of the Company for the North-West. Mr. Thompson prides himself on the fact that the Winnipeg Mill has earned the reputation of being the "Parlour Mill" of Canada, by reason of the dainty cleanliness practised throughout. The following extract from a letter, communicated by a Manitoban farmer to the Winnipeg Tribune of February 20, 1893, says volumes for the attitude maintained by the company and its officials towards all whose interests are one with theirs:—

To the Editor of the "Tribune."

Sir,—We often hear the remark "Corporations have no souls," but, like all rules, there are exceptions to this one, as I have found to my pleasing experience. Some time since I had the misfortune to lose 1,100 bushels of wheat by the burning of the Ogilvie elevator at Virden. I had been guilty of * * * not insuring, and consequently had no claim for compensation. The company, however, treated me very generously. They not only allowed me to take out my full quantity from the ruins, but granted me every facility for getting the very best of it. When done, I felt that I had been well used by the company. To my surprise, however, I have received a letter from Mr. Thompson, the Manager of the Ogilvie Company, informing me that on the occasion of the recent visit of Mr. W. W. Ogilvie to Winnipeg, he had seen fit to consider my case, and had given instructions to send me a cheque for \$440, being 40 cents per bushel for the wheat I had stored. * * * This was something I never asked for, and did not expect, and the action was entirely on the part of Mr. Ogilvie. * * *

Yours truly, JAMES ELDER.

It is surely very refreshing amid the tales of greedy and grinding monopolies to come across an incident such as the above. Such an act on the part of the Flour King is surely a guarantee to the agricultural community that fair play and honourable treatment may always be had from Mr. Ogilvie.

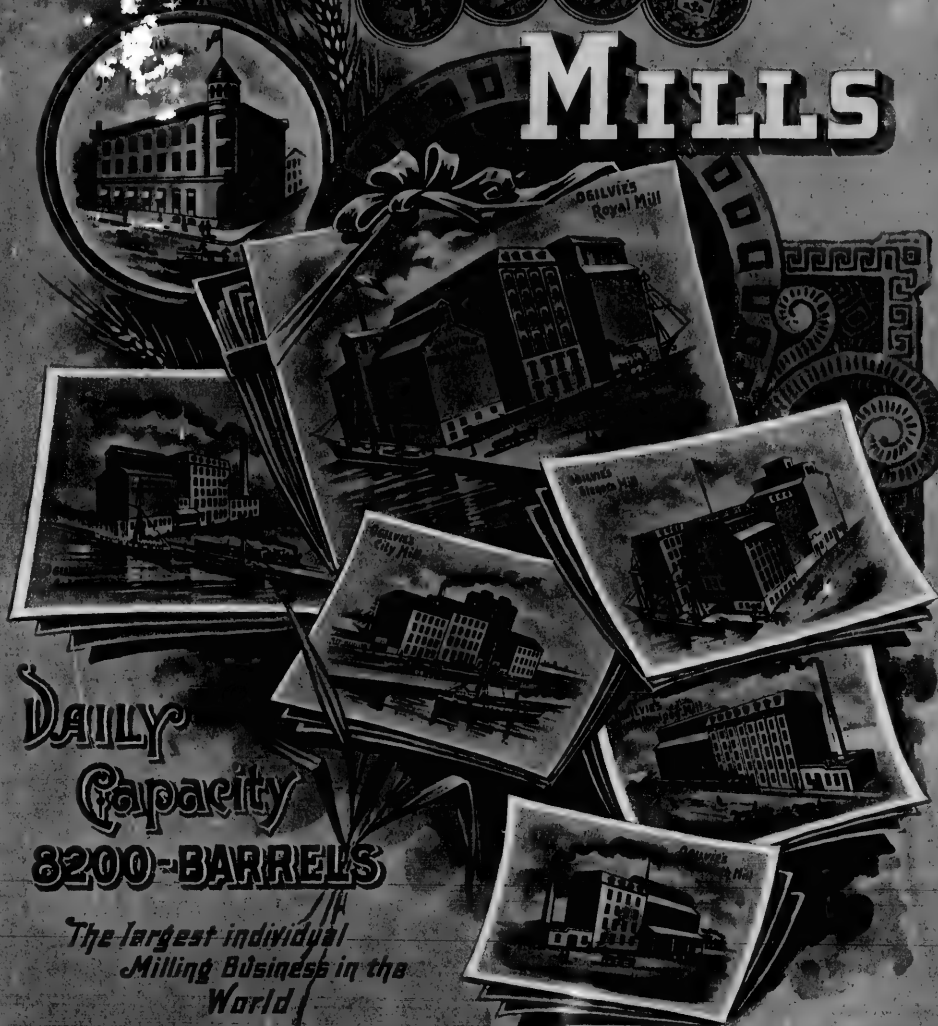
The head-office at Montreal is one of the most attractive buildings in the city, and includes a handsomely furnished and equipped reading and recreation room for the large staff of employees. The evidently heartfelt interest which Mr. Ogilvie has always displayed not only in business, but in all the officers, the staff, and those connected with it, shows the man in his widely-known character of a just, painstaking, and most truly benevolent master. His influence is far-reaching, and many are the tokens to show the high esteem in which he is held.

In 1892, the Glenora Mills at Montreal were re-built and fitted up on a new principle, making them the most perfect in existence.

Although not caring to enter public life, Mr. Ogilvie has always been a staunch upholder of the Conservative Party. He is a leading member of the Corn Exchange, and Board of Trade in Montreal, of which last body he was recently elected President by acclamation.

W. W. OGILVIE'S

MILLS



DAILY

Capacity

8200-BARRELS

*The largest individual
Milling Business in the
World*

SPEECH DELIVERED BY HON. GEO. E. FOSTER,

MINISTER OF FINANCE, IN THE DOMINION HOUSE OF COMMONS, MARCH 27th, 1894.

MR. SPEAKER, I shall have to crave the indulgence of the House to-day, and to bespeak the kindly attention, even a more considerate attention, which I could scarcely ask, than hon. members have generally given me, owing to the important task which is set before me.

In the first place, I wish to say a word or two with reference to two or three facts worthy of being noted when considering the year just passed. The savings of the country, as indicated by the deposits of the people in the Government and other savings banks, show an increase as usual—an increase which might not have been expected, but which nevertheless took place. On the 30th June, 1889, we had a balance of deposits in the Government savings banks, including the Post Office, of \$42,956,357. About that time, as hon. gentlemen will remember, the rate of interest was lowered from 4 per cent to 3½ per cent. For that and other reasons the deposits ran down until, on the 30th June, 1891 they touched \$39,400,026. On the 30th June, 1892, they had increased only to \$39,529,546, but the deposits had an upward tendency. On the 28th February, 1894, those deposits had grown to \$42,165,896, or an increase of \$2,636,350. Another evidence of the thrift and prosperity of our country during the year 1892-93 is shown by the fact that whilst this increase took place in the Government savings banks, there was also an increase of about \$7,998,418 in the savings deposits in the other chartered banks; and if we add to these the savings of the people as placed in the loan and building societies—not a very large amount, about \$19,000,000, and which remains fairly stationary—we find that the total deposits of the people, the total savings of the people—their deposits in the various banks, Government and others—amounted, on the 28th February, 1894, to the sum of \$242,645,358, or a sum of nearly \$50 per head for the population of the country. When we take into account the fact that in 1878 this total was only about \$87,000,000, the fact remains that an increase between that period and the present has taken place of \$155,096,312.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

The commerce of the country during 1892-93, I have briefly noted. As finances showed exceedingly well in that year, as the savings showed an increase of about ten million dollars, so the trade and commerce of the country showed not only well, comparatively to itself in preceding years, but exceedingly well relatively to the experience of other countries. The Australian colonies, in their trade, ran down by hundreds of thousands; British commerce decreased in 1892-93, as compared with the preceding year, to the extent of \$133,291,535, her exports decreasing to the extent of \$41,678,026. French commerce declined \$97,811,239, her exports declining \$49,883,914 of that amount. The United States trade fell off \$133,182,229, her exports showing a decrease of \$68,499,544. With this record of decrease and decadence in trade, it is pleasing to contrast Canada's experience, which shows an increase in trade of \$6,269,177, and an increase in exports of home products of \$6,459,344. If that is an indication of progress relative to our foreign commerce, when we come to the country itself we find that more miles of railway have been operated, namely, 15,020, as compared with 14,585 in the preceding year. We find that there has been an increase in the passengers carried; we find that about an equal amount of freight has been moved—some twenty-two million tons—and we find that the earnings are larger than in the preceding year, amounting to about \$52,000,000. The tonnage by lake and sea has been well sustained. The increase of imports and exports has taken place as I have stated, and a notable and gratifying effect in relation to this increase is that in farmers' products—agricultural products, animals and their products—there has been a large development, the year 1892-93 showing a total export of these products of \$49,235,106, against \$46,145,590 the preceding year. As to the distribution of the exports to the United States, Canada sent \$6,020,592 worth in 1893, as against \$6,643,019 in 1892; to Great Britain, \$40,420,681, as against \$36,869,595 the preceding year.

THE FISCAL POLICY.

Now, Mr. Speaker, having thus briefly and rapidly gone over the financial exposition, as it is called (which I think cannot but be, on the whole, gratifying to the House) it becomes my duty to take up the

second branch of my labor of the day; that is, to say something with reference to the tariff changes which it is proposed to introduce. I am sure the House will pardon me if I preface the recital of these changes by some general remarks upon the question. You will agree with me, Mr. Speaker, that there could not well be a more important question for a Parliament to discuss and for a country to decide than the principle upon which and the details with which it arranges its fiscal and tariff legislation. The arrangement of a tariff and the principle which is to be adopted has two aspects—it looks to the revenue which is required in a country, and it looks as well to the general trade and development of a country. I wish, at this early stage of my remarks upon this subject, to say that, so far as the revenue aspect is concerned, it is of infinitely less importance than the effect of the principle and the details of the tariff upon the trade and development of a country. I know—and hon. gentlemen on both sides of the House will recognize it as a fact when I state it—that the revenue which is raised under a tariff is used often (and used, in my opinion, very often wrongly) either as an argument in favor of a tariff principle, or as an argument against it. It has not been outside of the experience of myself and other hon. gentlemen on this side of the House, that the fact that thirty-eight millions were raised and spent in the country in a single year has been debited to and made the ground of attack upon the policy, and the principle of the policy under which that revenue accrued. That is a position which, to my mind, is scarcely defensible. The principle of the tariff has nothing to do in this year 1893-4 with the amount of money which is required for the country's expenditure; and the fact that thirty-eight millions of dollars are raised under it is neither an argument for its support nor an argument for its condemnation. In the first place, thirty-eight millions of dollars are not raised by the tariff at present in force, and would not be raised by any tariff put in force in the country. Of the thirty-eight millions of dollars of revenue, twenty-one millions of dollars has to do with the tariff principle or tariff detail. But the other seventeen millions of dollars are raised in totally different ways, as hon. gentlemen well know. So that the fact that a large amount of revenue is raised and spent in the country is not to be used by opponents of the present policy either in its details or in its principle as an argument against it and for its condemnation. The first thing to be settled by a country in this relation is how much money it ought to raise for its current expenses. When once that is settled, then the question of tariff simply has to do with revenue in this light—whether that revenue can be raised under that tariff or not, and then the tariff is relegated to the place where it properly belongs, and the view with which it should properly be canvassed—the principle and details of the tariff under the working out of which the necessary revenue shall be raised. So that the principal aspect in which the tariff is to be viewed is as to its effect upon the trade and development of the country.

THE PRINCIPLES OF THE TARIFF LEGISLATION.

The principle of the tariff was well discussed in 1878 and several years preceding. It was discussed by the rival parties on the platform of the country, and in the House of Parliament itself. Then the question was relegated to the people, and the decision of the people given upon it. That decision has been reaffirmed in 1882, in 1887, and in 1891. Now it happens that, in the course of events, a period arrives when a retrospect is to be taken of the tariff in its operation, and when the question comes again before Parliament as to the principles of the tariff and as to the details which shall be built upon those principles. It seems to me that there are only three possible principles upon which, or methods by which, a tariff can be modelled. One is to have simple free trade, under which you have no customs imposts at all, the revenue necessary for the country being raised by direct taxation, however it may be distributed. Another is to have a revenue tariff which selects a list of articles and places rates of impost upon those articles, chiefly with a view to the quickest, easiest and best method of raising the amount which is necessary, but also with the necessary sequence of incidental protection whenever this selected list includes those things which are produced or can be produced in the country itself, a protection which is incidental, but which, in a purely revenue tariff, is never designed. The other and third method is the protective tariff, by which you select a certain list of articles and place upon them certain rates of impost with a view to raising a certain amount of money for the services of the country, but more especially with this view, that whilst you raise the amount of money that is necessary for the country, you shall stimulate the development of the resources of the country, you shall help to make its industrial life broad and diversified, and progressive, to manufacture in the country, by the labor of its people, as much as possible of what the people have to consume, and over and above that, as much as possible of what outside countries can be got to take of the products of the labors of the people. So the difference between a revenue tariff and a protective tariff is not that there may not be in both an incidental protection, but that in a purely revenue tariff that protection is simply incidental and not designed; whilst in a protective tariff it is both incidental and is designed to be a protection, and is put upon the statute-book for that purpose. Now, Sir, it seems to me that outside of these three methods no others have ever been proposed, or have ever been

acted upon. Take the first, the simply free trade method. There is no country in the world to-day which practises it, or which has adopted it; there has been no country in the world, among those classed as great and progressive countries, which has ever adopted it. It is something which is very well to talk about, something which in airy and fine-sounding phrases, does to tickle the ear, at the hustings, of the audience that is listening, but which when brought down to the cold plane of discussion in Parliament and in legislative halls, has no place, and up to this date has found no place. The only great country in the world which has adopted the second method is Great Britain. She has selected a list of articles and placed imposts upon them, and so far as any of those articles are produced in the country, and are not subject to an equivalent excise tax, she has given them protection. The protection is brought to a minimum when the list of articles is so chosen that the whole of them, or the most of them, are of a class which is produced abroad and which is not produced at home. The third method is that which all great countries at the present time, with the exception of Great Britain, has adopted and has in practice, and that is the protective system, in which a list of articles is selected, and upon which impost rates are placed with the design, not only of raising a revenue, but of protecting the country in its various industries, in its labor and in its general development. Great Britain, which to-day is the only example, as I have said, of a country which has a revenue tariff as nearly as possible approaching to the non-protective, is a country which commenced her career by a protection which in some cases amounted to absolute prohibition, and which for many years progressed under a very high rate; and it was only when at last, by the unique development of her own forces, her own industrial powers as compared with surrounding countries, and the unique combination of conditions outside of herself which put her in a position to dominate completely the industries of the world, that she threw her ports open and allowed all products to come into her markets without imposts, in order that she might, for her own interest and benefit, carry the products of her labor, of her inventive faculties and mechanical genius, into every quarter of the world. She did that, but year by year her customers have been learning her arts, though they have not practised her example; and whilst they, in inventive genius, in mechanical dexterity, in industrial development, in many cases are equalling Great Britain, or coming close up to her, at the same time they are protecting their own ports and their own country; and to-day wares and goods which formerly were made in Great Britain alone, are now made in every quarter of the globe, and they are coming from protective countries into the markets of Great Britain to compete with what she manufactures, and throwing out of employment, in many instances, the very artisans who are descended from generations of industrial operatives in Great Britain.

If Canada were to-night commencing anew and discussing the principle upon which she should arrange her tariff with a view to the development of her resources and of her industries, she would have this surrounding set of circumstances of which to take cognizance; that being young, without the advantages of wealth, with all the initial disadvantages of a new country and a comparatively undeveloped country, so far as industries are concerned, surrounded by older and wealthier countries, having generations of skill, with large industries competing for the marts of the world, and on a world-wide scale, and all earnestly and fiercely competing for trade in those industrial products which Canada herself might have to take for the consumption of her people. If she were in that position to-day it seems to me that the very same thing would have to be done which was done in 1878 when she first canvassed this question, when she first came to the decision that it was impossible for her to have the industrial development which she needed, and which was necessary to her progress and her permanence, unless she gave to her people the vantage-ground of a measure of protection which would mitigate the fierce competition and the advantages which older and more skilled countries possessed against her; and when she chose, as her policy, the well-known principle underlying the present tariff. In 1878 the Liberal-Conservative party espoused that principle, that party has existed on that principle up to the present time, it exists to-day upon that principle. More than that, it proposes to base its existence for many days to come upon that principle. One thing is certain, that so far as this Government is concerned, their policy is historic, it is definite, it is undoubted. I wish I could say the same of the party of hon. gentlemen opposite.

HAS THE TARIFF RATE BEEN ABNORMALLY HIGH?

The policy of protection, which was adopted in 1878, has been objected to for several reasons, and just for a moment I wish to glance at two or three of the objections which have been made. In the first place, it has been objected to because of the alleged high rate of duty which it imposes upon products imported into the country; and the attempt is made with many persons, who do not have the advantage of reading, discussing and understanding these matters as do gentlemen who are continually engaged on them, to show that the tariff under the protective system that has been in force in Canada since 1878, and which is in force now, is

one that is abnormally and outrageously high. Let me discuss that question for a single moment. Is it high? If there is to be a protective system at all, everybody knows that it must be higher in its inception than as the years gradually pass, when industries have become established and when the industrial development of the country grows apace. If a high degree of protection is necessary at any time, it is necessary in the initial years of a policy which adopts the principle of protection as its basis. Compare the rate of impost upon products coming into this country with that in other protected countries, and how do we stand? Is the assertion correct, that the rate of impost in Canada under the protective policy is absurdly and outrageously high? Suppose we compare it with other countries, not with France, which is a most highly protected country, but with the United States, and consider the actual figures as to what the imposts are in our own country. Well, Sir, if you take the average of the ad valorem duty paid on all dutiable goods imported into this country for home consumption from 1879 to 1893, you will find that in no year has the rate exceeded 31·85 per cent, and that the average of those years has been 28·4·9 per cent. That is a refreshing and moderating fact when taken in connection with the assertion constantly made by the opponents of the policy that under it the imposts reach 40, 50, 60, 70 and 100 per cent.

True in regard to trivial and individual items here and there, but entirely misleading as tending to induce the public to believe that it is an outrageously high rate. That is a mode of argument which is open to hon. gentlemen opposite, but at least, we must confess that it has not the merits of open, candid and complete truth. The rate per cent of imports dutiable coming into the United States between 1879 and 1893 has never been below 43 per cent, and has gone up to 50 per cent, and the average of those years is 45·6·9 per cent, on the imported dutiable goods for home consumption in the United States; that is, Canada has this protective tariff that hon. gentlemen opposite have always denounced as being so absurdly and outrageously high—17½ per cent lower than the tariff in force in the protective country by the side of us, the United States. But there is another point of view which for plain, honest and complete truth must be brought out. What the people pay as the amount of the impost can only be fairly taken and fairly put if you take the total amount of goods that are brought in for home consumption and used by the people. The very essence and concomitant of a national policy on the protective system is that while you build up industries in the country, you leave raw material which is not made in the country or grown in the country, free, as a basis of cheap manufacturing, and the dutiable list and the free list go side by side and have gone side by side under this policy; and the true measure of the impost and cost, so far as revenue is concerned, and so far as the people of Canada are concerned, is to find out what has been the duty rate on the total quantity of goods they have imported and consumed in this country. Taking that as a basis, what do we find? That in no year from 1869 up to now, has there been more than 21·57 per cent duty upon dutiable and non-dutiable goods on an average as an ad valorem impost in this country, and that the average has been 19 per cent. In the United States there has never, until the last two years, been a less duty than 25 per cent; it has become lower during the last two years, since raw sugar was taken off the dutiable list and put on the free list; but, notwithstanding that fact, from 1879 to 1893 the average impost on dutiable and free goods in the United States was 27·5·9 per cent, while in Canada it was 19 per cent.

In the last two years in the United States it has been 21·26 per cent, and 23·49 per cent. So that I think the contention is fairly made and is well founded, that if you take the tariff as a whole and compare it with the tariff of protected countries, even as to the dutiable list, it is a moderate tariff on the average; and if you take in connection with that the large free list which goes side by side with the list of imposts, the tariff is remarkably moderate, not exceeding at the present time 17½ per cent, or a shade below it.

THE TARIFF AND STAPLE PRODUCTS.

But there is another point of view to be taken, and that is that in Canada the population, so far as the protective features are concerned, has laid no heavy hand upon the population so far as staple products of consumption are concerned, and I desire to draw the attention of hon. gentlemen opposite to this point. What are they? The staples of living produced in this country have been benefited, in that the protective policy has kept the market from periodical and sectional demoralization, and that has been its value, and that is the value of the principle of protection, so far as it applies to the staple products of the country, which are produced in surplus. Eat, with reference to these things, what is the truth of the matter? In lumber, in brick, and in stone, which are the staples of building, this country has a surplus, and they are not enhanced in price. In the matter of fuel, of wood, and of coal: the one abounds everywhere, the second abounds in different portions of the country in large degree; and since the year 1887 the only remaining staple of the fuel of the people, in the shape of anthracite coal, has been free. So that to-day the fuel that the people

of this country need for warmth and for comfort, is free and untouched by the National Policy or its imposts. If you come, again, to the staple food of the country, its vegetables, its fruits, its grains, its meats, its dairy products, all of these grow in this country to a surplus, and the National Policy lays no heavy hand of impost upon them. They are raised here, they are raised in surplus, and, so far as the energy and power of the people is concerned, they are hampered to no degree by the National Policy. The tea, the coffee, and the sugar of the people have also been made free under the National Policy—although that was a boon which could not be given by hon. gentlemen opposite under their revenue policy—and millions of taxation have been remitted from all classes of the people, especially the poorer people, on those products alone. The National Policy has laid no heavy hand on the people so far as the consumption of these articles goes. Let us come to the staple articles of wear: the boots and shoes, upon which there is a tariff of 25 per cent, but every man knows that in Canada boots and shoes are made as good and bought as cheaply as they are in any country in the world. On the cottons that are used by the people, the average tariff has been about 28 per cent, and cottons to-day can be bought in Canada, taking quality and price into account, as cheaply as anywhere else in the world.

ABOUT ENHANCING THE COST.

Another objection that has been made to the National Policy and to the protective principle in it, is: that the cost of many manufactured goods has been enhanced to the consumer on account of the rates imposed. Now, Sir, I grant that argument at once to a certain extent. I say that in the initial years of a National Policy with a protective principle in it, it will have the effect of enhancing the cost of goods, and that at the first the cost of goods will be very closely up to the measure of the protection which was given. If it does not have that effect why should it ever be adopted at all, and what is the good of it? The fact that you have a country which is not in its then present condition able to compete with the great industries and competitive powers of the world, shows that it is necessary that they shall have a vantage ground upon which they may collect their forces, upon which they may deploy the industrial activities, upon which they may gain experience, and in which they may get skill; and the object of a protective tariff is to give that vantage ground, and in giving it I frankly admit that in the initial stages the price will be raised to a certain degree. But I want to meet my hon. friends opposite on this argument of theirs, which again is not altogether truthful and perfectly honest. That is, that in their speeches before the country and in their speeches in this House, they tax the National Policy with raising the cost to the full amount of the duty which each article bears at present. Now, I say that that is unfair. I affirm that the only measure of rise, the ultimate measure of rise in cost under the National Policy is, the difference between the impost that it puts upon a certain line of goods and what would have been put upon that line under a revenue tariff, and a tariff for revenue purposes only. And I say this: that if hon. gentlemen opposite reproach the National Policy with a 30 per cent tariff upon hardware, while they put a 17½ per cent impost upon it; in perfect fairness all the cost they can debit to the National Policy is the rise between 17½ per cent and 30 per cent, or 12½ per cent. If they thought it was necessary to put a tariff of 17½ per cent upon boots and shoes for revenue merely, with the incidental protection that it gave, and if the duty on boots and shoes to-day is 25 per cent, do not debit the National Policy with the full 25 per cent of rise, but debit it with what properly belongs to it, namely, the 7½ per cent. Let us go further than this. Go back to 1878 and calculate the ad valorem equivalent upon all goods dutiable and free brought into this country, and it is 14 per cent. Calculate it to-day and it is 17½ per cent, and debit the National Policy with what belongs to it, namely, a rise on the total consumption of the country of 3½ per cent. Now, Sir, I have been frank to admit that, in the initial stages of a protective policy, the prices of goods manufactured under it will be enhanced; but I am here to state another fact, and that is, that as capital invests itself, as industrial establishments multiply, as they become diversified and distributed throughout the country, the power of internal competition comes in to take the place of external competition—a competition in many cases more keen and destructive than the foreign competition, owing to equal conditions of production and equal conditions of carriage and distribution in the country. It is one of the most patent facts in the history of the National Policy here, as in the history of protection in the United States, in Germany and in other countries—and a fact that cannot be contradicted—that, although there is at first a heightening of prices, they tend to come down, by the multiplication of industries and the competition which results therefrom, until the producers sell simply at the cost of manufacturing, plus a merely living profit.

THE GENESIS OF PROTECTION.

But, Sir, a crowning objection that hon. gentlemen take to the National Policy is that it is an offspring

of greed and selfish cupidity on the part of the few—of a desire amongst some to rob, and an acquiescence by the great majority in being robbed, until the process is legalized; and then it becomes, as my hon. friend says, legalized robbery. The very force and vehemence of an assertion like that disproves it. This is a free country; the free men of Canada are an intelligent people, and they make their representatives understand what they want; and their representatives right quickly put on the Statute-book what the people make them understand they think ought to go on the Statute-book. There is the straightest and freest communication between the legislative power and the constituencies which are the basis of the legislative power; and no long years of dilly-dallying, no long years of delay, take place between the expression of the people's sentiments at the polls and the crystallization of that sentiment on the Statute-books of the country. And to say that a system like this, canvassed from one end of this country to the other in 1878, before an intelligent Canadian electorate—canvassed ever since, and decided four times at the polls, and always by the same intelligent electorate—can be set down as the cupidity and selfishness of a few to rob the people under the guise of law, is to make one of those assertions, so extravagant, and consequently so harmless, that I wonder hon. gentlemen opposite have not reformed their methods in this respect, and come down to milder and more moderate language. I say, Sir, that there was a nobler sentiment and a stronger reason for the adoption of the National Policy in 1878 than the one just given. I look upon it that the National Policy in 1878—whosoever brain conceived it, wherever the plan came from—came at the right moment, and in answer to a sentiment that was growing and developing in the country—the sentiment springing from a growing knowledge of Canada's resources and Canada's greatness; a sentiment of hope and aspiration. Every awakening feeling of a people coming up into stronger and lustier manhood at that time, took hold of the idea that was embodied in the National Policy. They said this: Here we are, on this continent, a small people, widely separated with geographical difficulties, but with immense and almost boundless natural resources; we cannot make up our minds to live always as a people simply giving our attention to one kind of work, and one kind only; these resources must be developed; those varied industries which have made the life of all great countries, which are indispensable to the life of every great country, must be planted, and permanently planted, in this country as well; and with our present position, and in the competing circumstances and disadvantages around us, there is no way by which we can do that other than by making the necessary sacrifice—by obtaining for ourselves the vantage ground, even though we have to pay for it at first, in order that those industries may be developed, and in order that we may grow up to be a progressive and self-dependent people. That was the principle taken hold of and embodied in the National Policy in 1878, and to that principle the people of Canada have been true and steady at every polling, and in every election ever since.

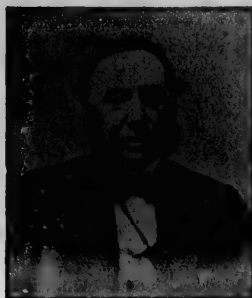
THE RESULTS OF PROTECTION.

Now, Sir, another statement which has been made widely by hon. gentlemen opposite—another of those mild and moderate statements—is that this policy and this system has been a blight and a curse to Canada. But, Sir, if this National Policy was a blight and a curse to the country, it has had an odd way of showing it; for, from 1878 to the present time, the revenues of this country have been buoyant and abundant, and the deficits, which were numerous under hon. gentlemen opposite, have disappeared, and surpluses have taken their places. The \$6,000,000 minus sign has become \$20,000,000 with a plus sign. Capital expenditure, for the last fourteen years, has been aided on an average of one and a half millions yearly or more, by the overplus from Consolidated Fund revenues. The credit of the country has steadily advanced and the interest rate on our debt steadily decreased. The financial conditions of this country have been sound, though our people have taken, during these late years, as it was right they should, every counsel of prudence. In the periods of stress and storm, which have recurred from time to time, in the cycle of fourteen years, Canada has stood the strain better than ever she did during similar periods before, and comparatively with other countries has passed them well and come out of them prosperously. In those fifteen years our record has been one of progress. The locomotives of Canada to-day travel ten thousand miles more of rails than they did in 1878. They transport 8,000,000 more passengers and 17,000,000 more tons of freight, and they earn \$33,000,000 more. They pierce every portion of the older provinces, they extend like a net-work through the North-west and reach the sea-shore of British Columbia, and with our canal system, which has been enlarged and extended, with our steamships plying from ports on the Pacific and the Atlantic to all points of the compass, they form great lines of transport, developing Canada, binding together the different parts of the country, furnishing means of outgo and carriage for our surplus products, and bringing closer together the colonies and the mother country. That is the record written in broad lines, and it does not bear out the assertion that the National Policy has been a blight and a curse to this country. The condition of the people has improved. The \$87,000,000 of earnings, which they had saved in 1878, has become \$243,000,000, an increase of 180 per

cent. The aggregate wealth, comfort, and happiness of the people have increased enormously as regards themselves, and comparatively as regards other peoples; so that to-day it is a truism—no argument is required but the bare statement is sufficient—that the people of Canada, taken as a whole, are as prosperous and comfortable as the people in any other part of the world. This makes out, I think, a strong *prima facie* case against the assertion that the National Policy has been a blight and a curse to this country. It has changed the whole face of business in this country. Old industries have been broadened and enlarged: new ones have been introduced; there has been a great diversification of industries. Pig and scrap iron, which in 1878 was introduced to the amount only of 34,000 tons, was imported in 1893 to the amount of 107,000 tons, while 48,000 tons were made in this country itself. These things show the wonderful increase and explosion in industrial developments which has taken place. Under the regime of hon. gentlemen opposite, most of our manufactured goods we would have imported from abroad, paying the artizan and the working-man in the foreign country. Under our policy we import the raw materials duty free, we make them up, and Canadian capital, Canadian brawn and Canadian brain has a chance to do this work. The wood industries in 1881 had an output of \$59,022,196, and in 1891 this output had become \$80,536,737. Leather industries, boots and shoes show an increase of \$1,124,478; saddlery and harness, \$648,628. Textiles show an increase from \$13,258,197 to \$17,472,226 as between 1881 and 1891. Cheese factories show an increase of \$4,319,834; flour mills, \$10,634,214; sugar refineries, \$7,500,000; musical instruments, \$2,143,618; paper and pulp mills, \$2,147,850; furriers and hatters, \$1,631,980; tobacco and cigar makers, \$2,682,219. The wages paid in Canada in the wood industries as between 1881 and 1891, show an increase of \$6,994,223; leather industries an increase of \$794,331; textiles an increase of \$1,767,639; food industries show an increase of wages of \$1,864,921; musical instrument manufactories an increase of \$555,400; paper and pulp mills, \$693,101. So that my assertion that a notable change has taken place in the industrial life of the country in this period of the National Policy is substantiated by the best statistics at our command, statistics which, taking them as the basis of comparison between 1881 and 1891, being as reliable and even more carefully collected than those of 1881.



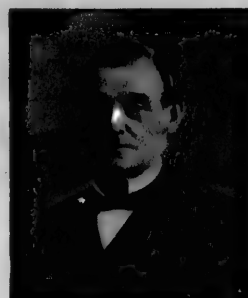
DOMINION METAL WORKS



GEORGE GARTIL.

GARTH & CO.,

Established 1828.



CHARLES GARTIL.

MANUFACTURERS
OF

Cast Iron Fittings.

Malleable Iron Fittings.

BRASS and IRON WORK

FOR

Hot Water Fitters,

Plumbers,

Steam Fitters,

Fire Departments,

Water Works,

Railroads,

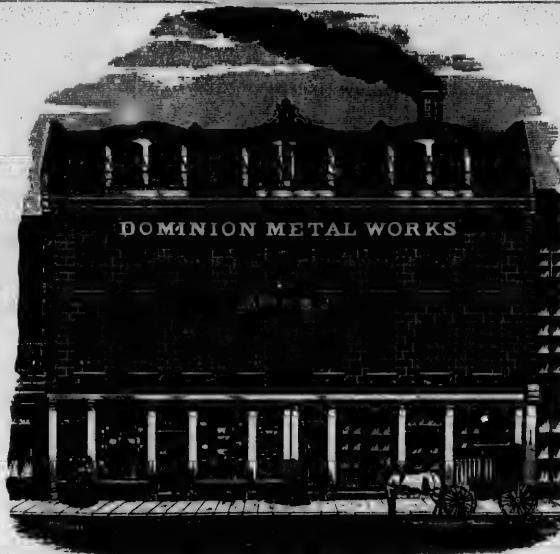
Steamboats,

Mines,

Factories,

Oil Refineries,

Steamships, Etc., Etc.



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National Meter Co.,

NEW YORK

Vandusen Steam Jet Pump

CINCINNATI.

Buckeye Bell Foundry Co.

CINCINNATI.

Penderby & Korting.

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lator.

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Jenkins' Globe Valves.

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Chapman Valve Mfg. Co.

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Boilers.

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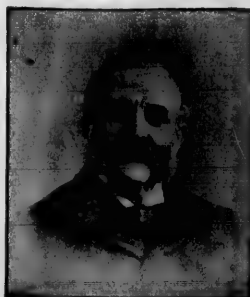
Water Elevator.

Fellow's Little Giant

and Twin Comet Lawn

Sprinklers.

Newton's Sanitary Traps.



HENRY W. GARTH.



Office and Factories :

536 to 542 Craig Street.

Iron Foundry and Warehouse :

CORNER

Maisonneuve & LaGauchetiere Sts.

MONTREAL.



JOHN H. GARTH.

GARTH & CO.

THE Dominion Metal Works is one of the oldest establishments, if not the oldest, of its kind in Canada; it was founded in 1828 by the father and grandfather of the present proprietors, and to the enterprise of its originators is due the first introduction into Canada of lighting by gas, as well as the first hot-water and steam apparatus as applied to the heating of dwellings. The first gas-lighting in Montreal was in Mr. George Garth's house, as was also the first hot-water heating.

The founder of Garth & Co. was Mr. George Garth, a native of Lancashire, England, who came to Canada and settled in Montreal. In 1826 he was engaged by the Waterworks Company as engineer and foreman of works. Two years later he, while still continuing to hold that situation, started in business for himself on Notre Dame street, which business was the nucleus of the Dominion Metal Works. In 1829 he removed to the old Waterworks building on the site of the Citadel Hill. In 1838 the business was removed to Craig street, Mr. Charles Garth assuming the management, while his father, Mr. George Garth, became manager of the Montreal Gas Works. The firm about this time assumed the style of G. Garth & Son. In the year 1842 the senior partner retired, the business being carried on solely by Mr. Charles Garth for a number of years.

The members of the firm to-day are Mr. Henry W. Garth, and his nephew, Mr. John Henry Garth. The senior partner is a son of the founder of the business. He was born in Montreal in the year 1840, and was educated at the Upper Canada College, Toronto. On leaving college, he entered the employ of Messrs. Carpenter & Co., wholesale hardware merchants of Toronto, remaining with them for five years, when he returned to Montreal in order to enter the employ of his brother, Mr. Charles Garth. Mr. Henry W. Garth became a partner in the firm in 1875, under the style of Charles Garth & Co. In 1878 the senior partner retired, and Mr. J. H. Garth became a member of the firm. Since that time the business has been carried on by the present proprietors, with an ability, enterprise and energy which have continued to win for the firm a high place in public estimation.

Mr. Henry W. Garth has been a member of the Board of Trade of Montreal for some five or six years, and is most active and energetic in upholding the interests of trade and commerce at this important port. He bears a high reputation in social as well as in mercantile circles, and enjoys the unqualified respect and esteem of the entire community. The trade of Garth & Co. is large, steady and daily increasing in volume and extent, as all their transactions are conducted upon those principles of sterling integrity and fair dealing which are never-failing sources of prosperity and success.

The junior partner, Mr. John Henry Garth, is also a native of Montreal, and was born in the year 1856. He was educated at Lennoxville College, Que., and first commenced business in the employ of his father, to whom he served an apprenticeship, in which capacity he continued until the year 1878, when, as has been already related, he, upon his father's retiring from business, entered into partnership with his uncle. He has contributed in no small measure to the success of the business, his energy, talents and practical knowledge of its workings aiding greatly to advance its interests, and to place this firm in the very foremost rank of Canadian manufacturers.

Mr. John H. Garth has been a prominent member of Montreal's most brilliant social circles for a number of years, and out of the scanty leisure of a busy and useful life, has contrived to serve his fellow-citizens in divers capacities. For a period of fifteen years he served in the Sixth Provisional Regiment of Cavalry, in which corps he held a commission as Lieutenant, and was always looked upon as one of its most energetic members. He has always taken a lively interest in athletics, and is a member of the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association, the Royal St. Lawrence Yacht Club, and the Lachine Boating Club. He joined the Board of Trade in 1888, and in politics is a Conservative.

Among the public and private buildings fitted up by Garth & Co. with heating, plumbing and gas apparatus may be mentioned:—the Lunatic Asylum, Toronto, in 1848; the Rockland Asylum, Kingston; the Parliament and Departmental Buildings, Ottawa; the Villa-Maria, Providence, and other convents and hospitals in Montreal; Harbour Commissioners Buildings, Montreal; The Grand Trunk Offices, Point St. Charles; and Nordheimer's Building, Montreal. They have also the Post Offices at Quebec, Sherbrooke, Clifton, Stratford, Winnipeg and Brandon, whilst among the banks they have had almost an entire monopoly in this line of business as the following list will show:—Jacques-Cartier, Mechanics' and Merchants' Banks, Montreal; Merchants' Bank branches at Kingston, Toronto and Ottawa; the branches of the Bank of Montreal at Ottawa, London and Hamilton. They also fitted up the Custom House and Lieutenant-Governor's residence at Regina; the Lieutenant-Governor's residence at Winnipeg; Langevin Block, Ottawa, and the Experimental Farm buildings, Ottawa; and also the McGill University building, Royal Victoria Hospital, and the Board of Trade (new building), Montreal.

JAMES SHEARER.

Of the numerous Scotchmen who, coming to this country early in their career, have, with the indomitable energy and practical ability so prominent among the characteristics of their race, achieved for themselves a high position in popular esteem, no better instance, perhaps, can be noted than that of Mr. James Shearer, the well-known manufacturer and contractor of Montreal. He is a native of Rosegill, Caithness-shire, Scotland, where he was born July 21, 1822. He was educated in his native parish and at Castleton, but left school while yet a boy to enter on an apprenticeship which fitted him for the occupations of his later life. His time concluded he went to Wick, where he was engaged for a year under D. Miller, in the erection of a church.

The desire to try his fortunes in a new country led Mr. Shearer at the age of twenty-one to cross the Atlantic. He settled at once in Montreal, where he has ever since resided. Prosperity has attended him ever since his first arrival in the Canadian metropolis, his business abilities and intelligence making success certain in a new country, where so much scope is afforded for personal energy and perseverance. Soon after his arrival he entered the employ of Edward Maxwell, an extensive carpenter and builder, remaining with him for three years, after which he went to Quebec to take charge of a department of the work on a bomb-proof hospital, then in course of erection in the Citadel. On his re-up steamboat building, and branch of business, turning the perfecting of cabin con-numerous customers at that of Molson and Torrance, steamboats to ply on the Rivers. This branch of his developed into large propor-

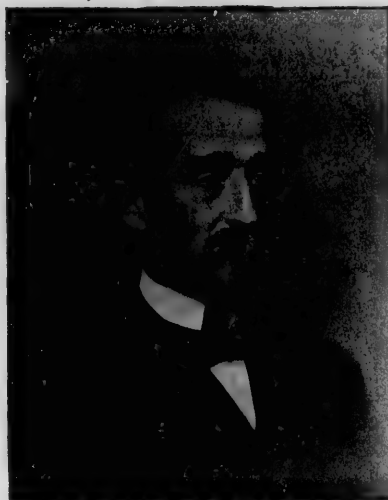
To Mr. Shearer the first to apply the hollow concave roof, now so widely ca. It is so constructed as inside of a building instead ing the freezing up of pipes. Windsor Hotel in Montreal.

Mr. Shearer is well a scheme for harbour im-one of its objects, the pre-city. The plans for this, in the hands of the Dominion the incorporation of the "St. facturing Company," who through to completion, has been twice applied for by Mr. Shearer. As a citizen he is progressive and public-spirited, ever in sympathy with the people, and, as regards the labour problem, holding and expressing the broad and liberal views which best embody the spirit of the age. Kind and generous towards his employees and ever ready to deal with them in that broad, manly and liberal spirit (that unfortunately does not characterise the majority of employers of labor) that always endears an employer to his workman and impresses upon their minds the fact that his interests are theirs, to which is largely due the advancement and prosperity of men of that school.

Mr. Shearer's residence on Mount Royal is worthy of notice. It is a model of superior construction, and all the beautiful wood finishing of the interior is of purely Canadian wood. The view from its windows is not excelled in Canada. It takes in the Chambly Hills, Belle Isle, Mount Johnston, several miles stretch of the River St. Lawrence, and the full extent of the City of Montreal. Among the many beautiful homes of Montreal, there is none that surpasses in charm or evidence of artistic taste this delightful spot on the mountain slope.

Mr. Shearer was married in Montreal, in 1848, to Eliza Graham, who died in 1894. His two eldest sons, James T. and Andrew, are now engaged with their father in business.

Years ago, Mr. Jonathan Brown entered into a partnership with Mr. Shearer, and the Saw and Planing Mills at the corner of Shearer and Richardson streets are run by the firm of Shearer & Brown.



by the British Government turn to Montreal he took speedily excelled in this his attention especially to struction. Among the very early date were the firms for whom he fitted up many St. Lawrence and Ottawa rapidly increasing business tions, and is still kept up. honour is due of being the roof, or more properly, the adopted throughout Ameri-to carry the water down the of the outside, thereby avoid-It was first used on the

known as the originator of provement which has, for vention of flooding of the the "Shearer Scheme," are Government. The Act of Lawrence Bridge and Manu-are to carry this project

MICHAEL F. NOLAN.

THE subject of this sketch furnishes in his career a powerful proof of the fact that in the New Dominion any man equipped with a sound judgment, perseverance and upright principles, must of necessity achieve success. Mr. Nolan has worked for all that he has won, content to advance step by step, and his winnings have not been beyond his deserts. A self-reliant and independent man, he is entirely self-made, and his life story testifies to his possession of exceptionable abilities, along with all the qualities that go to make a useful and public-spirited citizen. He is of Irish parentage, and was born in Griffintown, Montreal, in 1854, about fourteen years after his parents' removal to this country. He received his education in St. Ann's Christian Brothers' School, near his father's house, and passed, without further scholastic preparation, into practical life, entering the St. Lawrence Engine Works as time-keeper at the age of sixteen. Fifteen months later he entered the pattern department, where, after serving an apprenticeship for five years, he remained a short while as journeyman, before starting on his own account in a different line. He was in business on his own account for ten years, and then formed a partnership with Mr. J. F. Gourlay, and opened out the Grand Union Clothing Store. This firm was dissolved in 1891.

Mr. Nolan has always and in the interests of a evidence that his heart is in 1891, elected Alderman plete the unfinished term of He was re-elected in 1893, Council has ever enjoyed fidence of the public than individuality, Mr. Nolan has of his forefathers. The best race are strongly marked in shrewd, good humoured, to all about him, which fact little to do with his success first members of the Young ciation, and held the offices corresponding secretary, and He was also an officer and the Shamrock Lacrosse Club and delegate to the N. A. tional League. He is a C.M.B.A. and St. Patrick's also President of the Num-Ancient Order of Hiber-



been a representative man, busy life has given abundant with the people. He was, for St. Ann's Ward to com-the late Alderman Malone. and no member of the City more of the esteem and con-he. Like all men of strong a fervent love for the land characteristics of the Celtic him. He is quick-witted, and full of cordial good-will has had, perhaps, not a in life. He was one of the Irishmen's L. and B. Asso-of collecting-treasurer and is at present a life member member of the committee of for nine consecutive seasons, L. A., and also to the Na-prominent member of the National Society. He is ber Three Division of the nians.

Ald. Nolan has always taken a keen interest in Irish affairs, and it may be observed that he has also taken an active part in every movement that has had for its object the advancement of the cause of Home Rule for Ireland.

Ald. Nolan being himself a mechanic, and having sprung from the ranks of the workers, he is deeply interested in every movement that has for its object the elevation and bettering of the condition of the work-ingmen; ever ready and willing to aid in the efforts to secure the many reforms looked for by the labor organi-zations of this city, he has endeared himself to that important element by his many kind and generous actions in their behalf.

Mr. Nolan's interest in civic affairs is very great, and in countless instances he has cheerfully sacrificed interest and inclination to serve the public. Abundant opportunity has been afforded him of usefulness to his fellow-citizens, and the public duties which have been from time to time assigned to him, have ever been cheerfully discharged. He is at present Chairman of the Market Committee, and a member of the Light Committee.

In politics he has always been a whole-souled Liberal, and has taken that lively interest in the welfare of the party which might be expected from a man of his staunch and ardent nature.

He was married in 1883 to Lillie O'Sullivan, daughter of John O'Sullivan, of Belleville, Ont., a native of Kerry County, Ireland. Mrs. Nolan died in 1892.

MICHAEL J. F. QUINN, Q. C.

Perhaps no triumphs can be truer than those won in the beaten path of every day duty, nor any laurels more illustrious than the worthy fame which crowns the man whose life's efforts have been consistently, ably, and steadfastly put forth within the arena chosen by him in early manhood as that for which inclination and duty alike marked him out. We have numberless instances of men who, forsaking the claims of a professional or a business life, have achieved for themselves a brief celebrity in some unfamiliar field, startling the beholder as much by the incongruity of their course as by the brilliant successes won. But public confidence and unqualified approval have been ever reserved for the man whose

"Path of duty was the way to glory."

It would not be easy to find a career which more pointedly illustrates this truth than that of Michael Joseph Francis Quinn, the subject of this sketch. Born in Kingston, Ont., November 19, 1851, he was early marked out for a professional course. His father, Michael Quinn, an engineer, removed with his wife and two sons to Montreal, when he, was in his sixteenth change of residence, the his early education from the in his native town, passing College.

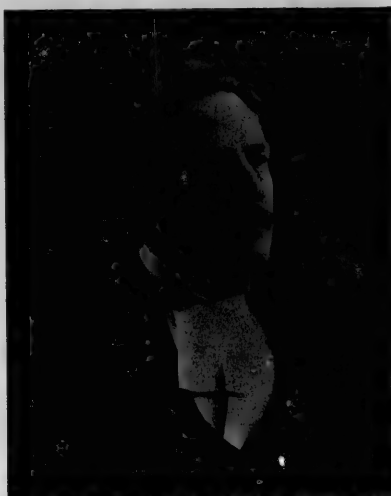
Two years after the red the office of the late where his rare abilities soon years later stress of circumstance to interrupt for a while the For four years he followed ing, however, at earliest pursuits.

He was admitted to the commenced a career, the been more than fulfilled by of subsequent years. Success first. One of his first causes Dolan, accused of the murder argument, which gained the the foundation of his fame. for Mr. McNamee in the securing the conviction of Carrol, one of the most notorious crooks in America. In 1885, only seven years after being called to the bar, Mr. Quinn was retained in nearly all the cases taken out by the customs authorities against merchants for supposed infringement of customs laws, and was, in nearly every case, successful. He also, in this year, pleaded successfully before the United States Circuit Court at Rochester in a customs case.

His great professional ability had won wide recognition by 1889, and he was in that year appointed a Queen's Counsel, and, passing rapidly from one stage of advancement to another, was in 1892 named Crown Prosecutor. During his term of office he has prosecuted over two hundred criminals annually.

Mr. Quinn has been twice married, the first time to Mary Elizabeth Hertz, daughter of the late John Hertz, of Kingston, and the second time to Ellen Mary Mullarky, daughter of M. C. Mullarky, Esq., of Montreal.

Mr. Quinn is in politics a Liberal-Conservative. He takes a lively interest in the well-being of his native land, giving to all public questions the keenest attention. His interest in all matters affecting public weal, together with his rare mental ability, resulted in 1887 in his being induced to come before the constituency of Chateauguay as a candidate for election to the Dominion Parliament. In this contest he was, however, unsuccessful. Mr. Quinn is pre-eminently a liberal handed and benevolent citizen. His kindly disposition and generosity have, perhaps, attached to his side as many friends as are also won by his brilliant cleverness and superior judgment. He is a man of the times, candid, open-hearted, and progressive.



removal to Montreal he entered Francis Cassidy, Q. C., attracted notice. Three stances made it necessary progress of his legal studies. a commercial calling, return opportunity to his legitimate

Bar in July, 1878, and then early promise of which has the triumphs and successes cess attended him from the was a defence of Martin der of Patrick Larkin. The acquittal of his client, laid He acted as private counsel well-known larceny case, James Jones, alias James

THE TOILERS' RIGHT TO SUNDAY REST.

BY JOHN CHARLTON, M.P.

"Six days shalt thou labour and do all thy work, but the seventh is the Sabbath of the Lord thy God. In it thou shalt not do any work."—Ex. 20:9, 10.

This command is the Divine authority upon which primarily rests the right of the toiler to demand the observance of one day in seven as a day of rest. By the same authority at the time of man's fall, was pronounced the sentence: "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread."—Gen. 3:19.

Thus it is manifest that the law of labour is of Divine origin, that the privilege of periodical rest is a Divine blessing, and that both the duty of labour and the privilege of rest find their primary and all sufficient authority in the Divine command. Like all of God's laws, both regulations are agreeable to nature and reason, and are in the highest sense designed to secure man's good. Thus the weekly rest day, being the birthright of the toiler by Divine authority, becomes in its possession and enjoyment a natural right, and a legal right in the highest sense of the term, because it is God given, and the attempt to deprive the labourer of the enjoyment of this right is not only a disobedience of Divine command, but an attack upon human liberty.

I shall treat of Sunday rest as a civil right belonging to every son of toil, always asking my reader to bear in mind its authoritative origin, and at the same time observing that even if the authoritative origin is denied, the claim of the labourer to a rest day, which is a physical and a mental necessity, is so thoroughly in accord with nature's requirements as to warrant every demand for securing its enjoyment to him. In fact, Sunday rest legislation cannot properly be asked for upon purely religious grounds, and the demand must rest upon the grounds of public necessity and the general good.

That Sunday rest is a physical and mental necessity, scarcely needs the employment of argument to demonstrate. Experience proves it, and experience also proves that each seventh day is the natural period of rest for man and beast. One day in ten was tried at the period of the French Revolution, and was found to be insufficient. One day in five has been tried and has been found to be too frequent.

In 1832, a Royal Commission in England was charged with the duty of taking evidence and reporting upon the question of the desirability of legislative provisions relating to Sunday rest. The following extract from their report is significant:—

"This Commission took the testimony of medical men as to the utility of Sunday rest in repairing the waste of physical energy. The impression produced by this testimony was profound. All concurred in the opinion, fortified by experiment and experience that the respite from toil one day in every seven was essential to man and beast as a condition of the highest development. Other inquiries as to economics and the interests of manufacturing operatives and the people in general led to the same conclusion."

Sunday labour is injurious both to body and mind. It is unnecessary, and worse than unnecessary because it is calculated to increase the plethora of overproduction. Labour-saving machinery has been brought to great perfection. The power of production, both in agriculture and in the mechanical arts, has been greatly increased. One of the economic problems of the day is as to how the business disturbances arising from over production shall be overcome. Sunday labour simply serves to aggravate this difficulty; a difficulty which will probably, in the near future, lead to the shortening of the hours of labour. Sunday labour means to the toiler seven days work for six days pay. It may even result in securing a serious diminution of the pay for six days with the Sunday toil thrown into the count. It is the men who pocket the dividends, and not the men who earn them, who profit by Sunday work. Railway corporations are the greatest offenders in the requirement of Sunday labour from employees. Nine-tenths of Sunday work upon railways could be dispensed with without injury to public interests. Pressure of business is not a sufficient excuse. All that is required is an addition to the rolling stock in use, and the number of hands employed. Both of these changes would serve to give employment to idle men, would prove a benefit to the labouring classes, and would in the end entail no serious loss upon the corporations. It may even be questioned whether increased alertness and efficiency, and a higher moral tone among the employees, would not enable a railway to perform the same amount of work in six days, without an increase of men and rolling stock that is now performed in seven. It

must be remembered that with continuous work the men become fagged and spiritless. Reaching home Saturday night they are too tired to continue work and too poor to quit, and submit to loss of situation ; and society looks on without a protest, while scores of thousands of men are degraded and enslaved.

To correct the evil of Sabbath desecration and to protect the labourer in his right to Sunday rest, more stringent legislation is required, especially as relates to railway traffic. Against such legislation it is urged that it is religious legislation, that it interferes with individual liberty, and that if a man wants to work on Sunday no law should prevent his doing so. The trouble is that men are now obliged to work on Sunday who do not want to do so, and if their consciences protest against working that day their rights of conscience are violated. It is not proposed in Sunday rest legislation to interfere with religious convictions, or to enter upon the field of religious requirements or observances. It is not proposed to say that a man shall go to any particular church, or to any church whatever, but it is proposed to provide that if he wants to go to church he shall have the right to do so. At the present time, hundreds of thousands of men in America are obliged to work on Sunday, and their wives and children are, in the majority of cases, deterred from going to church and Sunday school because the husband and father is in the hands of a tyrant who obliges him to live in open and flagrant disregard of the principles taught in the church and school, which a sense of shame prevents wife and children from attending. If a Sunday observance law rescues man from the thralldom of Sunday labour and permits him to wash off the grime and stain of toil and put off the greasy blouse and overall, and in clean attire, a respectable and self-respecting citizen, to spend Sunday with his family, and with them to attend church and Sunday school, if he desires, are not his own best interests, the interests of his family, and the highest interests of the state thereby promoted?

With regard to Sunday rest, the great English Jurist Blackstone says :—

"It is an admirable service to a state considered merely as a civil institution."

Upon the question of Sabbath observance laws the eminent Justice Field, of the United States Supreme Court, has said officially when pronouncing judgment in California upon an appeal against a Sunday law :—

"The legislature had the right to make laws for the preservation of health and the promotion of good morals, and so to require periodical cessation from labour, if of opinion that it would tend to both."

Nearly all Protestant dominations take high ground in favour of Sunday rest legislation. Eminent jurists and statesmen have declared in favour of such legislation. Pope Leo XIII has pronounced most emphatically in favour of a proper observance of the Sabbath, and Archbishop Ireland, in an address to the Chicago Sunday Rest Congress in September, 1893, said :—

"I know well that we cannot ask the interference of the law for mere religious sake. This consideration is often urged against enactments of Sunday laws. But Sunday is more than a religious day—Sunday is the safety of society, the safety of the nation. Sunday is the inheritance of those who are disinherited from the wealth of the world. Sunday is the day needed by the masses of our people. On this ground I appeal to our law-makers to aid us in preserving it from desecration."

Sunday laws are not a novelty, or a recently demanded reform. Such laws have been upon the statute book of England for centuries, and are found upon the statute books of the majority of the Anglo-Saxon commonwealths of the world, with provisions, which, whatever may be their degree of stringency, at least recognize the justice and propriety of Sabbath observance legislation.

In answer to the charge that Sabbath observance laws are inconsistent with the requirements of justice, the demands of equality, and the principles of human liberty, it may be answered in brief that the charge is without foundation for the reasons briefly stated that they promote the public interest in the following respects :—

1st.—Such laws are most beneficial and advantageous as an excellent sanitary arrangement, promoting as they do cleanliness, health and self respect.

2nd.—Such laws serve the highest interests of the people, because they are powerfully instrumental in promoting good morals and social purity.

3rd.—Such laws secure rights of conscience and religious liberty, and that higher education which the church and the Sabbath school afford. They free the unwilling labourer from Sunday toil, and secure for him religious privileges and social advantages.

4th.—Such laws secure good homes which are the bulwark of the state, and from which are sent forth good and God-fearing men and women.

5th.—Such laws tend powerfully to promote temperance and obedience to the law.

6th.—Such laws are justified upon the ground of public necessity and public welfare, because they promote the prosperity and welfare of the state.

The influences that are to elevate humanity and produce a purer and nobler civilization must reach and

act powerfully upon the masses. It does not matter so much what the environment and the privileges, of the learned, the rich and the powerful may be. The day has passed away forever when the mass of men were serfs and vassals, whose opinions and desires were of no consequence, and who were, in fact, too ignorant to have opinions. The masses now possess intelligence and educational advantages, especially in Canada and the United States. The artisan and the toiler now have votes, and each one as an individual factor in the state is equal in political consequence to the man who may claim higher social position and greater advantages. The future of civilization depends chiefly upon the character of that great class of men whose labour produces and gathers in the world's harvests, builds its ships, digs in its mines, works in its factories, forges, furnaces and mills, and creates its wealth, and all should be alive to the far reaching consequences of such influences as are calculated to elevate the tone and improve the moral and physical condition of the world's toilers. Of all the influences that can possibly be brought to bear upon this great problem of the world's future, Sunday rest is the most important. Without it, the most elevating of mental influences are lost to the masses, and without it Christianity, which has imbued modern civilization with its influence and given to it every feature of superiority over the brutal and polluted form of ancient civilization, will deteriorate and gradually cease to exert the influences which are a blessing to man.

The labourer who desires to enjoy the blessing of Sunday rest, and who believes that Sunday labour is a degradation, should respect the rights of others, and should scorn to demand the enjoyment of any pastime or holiday that dooms a fellow labourer to loss of his Sunday rest and privileges. Only works of necessity and mercy should be permitted. No requirement beyond that limit should be made. The rights of labour to Sunday rest can only be secured by the united action of those interested in securing the enjoyment of that right. To fasten upon others a bondage from which any portion of the great fraternity of toilers seek to escape is treason to the cause, and aids powerfully to secure the success of Sunday slavery. When the opening of the Chicago Fair was demanded, professedly in the interests of labour, compliance with the demand involved the loss of Sunday rest for 16,000 employees of the Fair. The gratification of the desire for Sunday opening meant the loss of liberty for each one of these men. The excursion train, Sunday car and Sunday train, all require the labour of men who are justly entitled to Sunday rest. The labourer who, for his own pleasure or gratification, would demand Sunday labour from these men seriously weakens the safeguards of his own right to Sunday rest, and fails to do to others as he would that others should do to him. Permitting selfish disregard of the rights of a single brother laborer seriously weakens the claim of all for Sunday rest. The sons of toil should present a united and unbroken front, when demanding this God-given right. The claim of each individual should be the common cause of all. Their motto should be, "United we stand, divided we fall."

Specious arguments are used to justify Sunday excursions. These arguments are fallacious. Such excursions rob the men in charge of their Sunday rest. As a rule, the worst class of the population patronizes them. Too often the Sunday excursion proves to be a saturnalia of drunkenness. Even the most orderly kind are objectionable, and gradually the worst features are acquired. The Sunday excursion is not restful. The crowds who patronize them almost invariably have at night a jaded, dissatisfied look, and is a demoralized and bedraggled crowd. The men and women who patronize them usually have a blue Monday; sometimes the consequences are a sulphurous Monday and a blue Tuesday. It is the uniform testimony of the employers of labour that the efficient, clean, self-respecting, and happy artisan, operative, or labourer, is the man who stays at home on Sunday, and goes to church and Sunday school. Such an one comes up to his work Monday morning rested, fresh and alert, and ready to grapple with the duties of the week, while his excursionist brother comes to work tired, listless and dissatisfied. The Sunday excursion robs the working crew of their Sunday rest, and inflicts upon its patrons the hardest day's work of the week. It is a vice breeder, a rest destroyer, and to a more or less positive extent, a nuisance.

I desire to say a few words as to the bad influence exerted by the Sunday newspaper. In Canada, this evil has, as yet, hardly obtained a foothold. In the United States, its degrading influence is apparent, and should serve as a warning to us. The great American editor, Horace Greeley, truly characterises the Sunday newspaper as "a social demon." Itself a violation of God's law relating to the observance of the Sabbath, it is the natural enemy of every thing that acts as a restraint upon Sabbath desecration. Its influence upon religious and moral life is disastrous. Its tendency is to sap and blight every good influence that exists in the country. Within the sphere of its influence it banishes the bible and religious reading matter, and to a great extent it banishes all solid literature from the family. It begets a lower tone of public sentiment. Triviality, superficiality, and immorality, are characteristics of the Sunday newspaper, and the person who is a habitual reader of it has a superficial and trivial literary taste to the extent of the Sunday newspaper's influence over him. This potent instrumentality for evil will defy and oppose the observance of the Sabbath. It will never be guilty of the inconsistency of being found upon the right side in any question when the principle of Sabbath

observance is involved. It is the enemy of christianity; the enemy of Sunday rest; the enemy of labour; the anti-christ of America. After the labourer has given six days to toil and bread earning, it comes and seeks to silence the voice that directs him to nobler themes and a higher destiny, and to enlist his sympathy for every enemy of his temporal and spiritual well being.

The cause of Sunday rest is making progress, and public sentiment year by year is becoming more fully alive to the importance of the question. In connection with the World's Fair at Paris, in 1889, an International Congress of Weekly Rest was held under the authorization of the French Government, which continued from the 24th to the 27th of September. This Congress passed resolutions recommending the securing of Sunday rest for the labourer by Legislative enactments. Following the Paris Congress came the International Labour Congress, which was convened by Emperor William II at Berlin, in March 1890, and which sat from the 15th to the 30th of that month. This Congress also passed resolutions in favour of Sunday rest, and legislative action for securing the same. Since the Paris Congress, Sunday legislation has been enacted in France, Spain, Germany, Hungary, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, and other European countries. In connection with the Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893, a Sunday Rest Congress was held, which served, as fully as any of its predecessors had done, to direct attention to the important subject, and at this Congress the Catholic Church of the United States, through the action of Cardinal Gibbons and Archbishop Ireland, made common cause with the religious and civil forces already at work to secure Sunday rest legislation and reform.

Let the good work go on, and let all good men labour for its success. Let the labourer, the mechanic, the operative, the artizan, every son of toil demand the right of Sunday rest for himself, and stand ready to defend the humblest of his brethren in the enjoyment of the same right. United action and loyalty to a common cause on the part of every individual is necessary. No exception should be made in the application of the principle; works of necessity and mercy alone should be permitted on the day of rest. In no other way can the proper guarantees for the maintenance of this right be secured. Let it be remembered that the authority of God is the supreme warrant for the demand, and that the advocate of Sunday rest for the toiler can rest secure in a well founded belief that this cause is just.



THE LESSONS OF HISTORY.

SPEECH BY MR. J. J. CURRAN, M.P., DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, WEDNESDAY, MARCH 21ST, 1888.

HOW UNRESTRICTED RECIPROCITY DESTROYED IRELAND'S PROSPERITY.

Mr. Speaker, I trust that hon. gentlemen will consider the apology I owe them for intruding upon them at this late period of the debate as having been expressed, and I shall at once proceed to discharge the duty that now devolves upon me, in the first place, by referring to the statement made in the public press by Mr. Goldwin Smith, only a few months ago, when urging the people of Canada to adopt a policy of commercial union or unrestricted reciprocity. He said :—

"It is said Quebec is against commercial union. If she is, it is not on any commercial grounds. It is because the dominant and tithe-levying priesthood of Quebec want to keep its domain in a state of isolation, and shrinks from any increase of intercourse with the religious equality and free opinion of the American Republic" (Hear, hear.)

That was the statement published and sent broadcast over the country, and yet we find hon. gentlemen opposite trying to fight an imaginary foe, while they have a real and genuine one right before them if they wish to attack him. Perhaps it may be said that this was a slip of the pen, that Mr. Goldwin Smith, the apostle of this new political gospel that is going to regenerate the Dominion of Canada, did not really hold such sentiments. Let me read to the House what he said on September 6th, 1887, only a few months ago :—

"While I have watched the action of the unifying forces which draw us toward our kinsmen in the United States, I have also watched the growth both in bulk and in intensity within our own political border of a French nationality as alien to us as anything can well be, which seems fatal to our hope of a really united Canada." (Hear, hear.)

That is the statement made by this apostle of commercial union and unrestricted reciprocity. There is an opponent whom hon. gentlemen opposite can fight if they feel disposed to fight with some one, and lest there should be any mistake as to the position of this wonderful statesman, who has come here to do so much for Canada, whose words and whose writings and publications have never once been repudiated by a single gentleman on the other side of the House, I shall read a further quotation to show exactly what his sentiments are respecting one and a half-millions of the inhabitants of Canada. He said :—

"In truth our one chance of modifying the French element and arresting its growth into an alien nationality, appears to be to open it to the full influence of the English-speaking continent, which may be strong enough for the work of assimilation, while that of British Canada alone has proved to be too weak. The very reason which makes the ecclesiastics of Quebec recoil from commercial union with the Republic ought to make us the more ready to embrace it." (Hear, hear, and cheers.)

This statement was also published broadcast over the country, and yet we have hon. gentlemen opposite rising and working themselves into a terrible rage in regard to an imaginary insult, but not one of them has a word to say in condemnation of the utterances of this great commercial unionist and unrestricted reciprocity advocate, nor have his words, as I have already said, ever been repudiated or condemned by a single leading man on the other side of politics. The *Toronto Globe* had declared, in the most emphatic language, that nobody but a fool would think of unrestricted reciprocity. (Cheers.) It could not be carried out. It would not be accepted by the Americans. And that article is there in black and white to refer to. The official organ of those gentlemen on the other side has declared that, and any one can see it who wishes to take the trouble to read it. Now, up to the present time, we have had in this House a very strange discussion on the part of hon. gentlemen opposite. We have been told that they are now proposing to introduce an absolute economic revolution in the country, a revolution which, it is admitted, is going to ruin a great many people, which, the hon. gentlemen opposite say, cannot be helped, because no great revolution of this kind can be carried out without hurting some one. We are to risk all the invested wealth in manufactures in this country, which have been fostered under the National Policy—wealth that was put there under the solemn promise of Parlia-

ment that the policy would be adhered to; we are to do away with all that for a prospective benefit; and what argument have we had on the other side to bring us to that frame of mind? We have had statistics, we have had gentlemen of great skill and ability taking a number of figures and tossing them about, endeavoring to make it appear from their standpoint that such and such results must flow from their speculations. But strange to say, Sir, on a question of this kind which involves such mighty interests, we have not had one appeal to history. Not one parallel has been cited from the history of the past, at least not on the floor of this House, although it was done in some parts of the country. Now, I think this is unprecedented. When any great movement of this kind was proposed in any deliberative assembly in the world, something has been done to show what have been the results of like movements in the past. Not to weary this House with examples, I shall merely draw your attention to the great speech delivered by the Hon. Mr. Gladstone in 1886, when he introduced his Government of Ireland Bill. On that occasion he went over the whole history of Europe. He took every country and showed how such a measure as his had been carried under such and such circumstances, going from Norway and Sweden down to Austria and Hungary, and showing by historical parallels what they might expect to realize from the measure he had laid before the House. We have had nothing of that kind here, Mr. Speaker; but throughout the country, when these gentlemen were talking commercial union, although they deny it now, there was a parallel sought to be drawn between the position of Canada and the United States, and the position of Scotland and England at the time of the Scottish union. Is there a gentleman in this House who has not read their speeches, and who does not remember this argument having been advanced, not only by Mr. Goldwin Smith, but also by the hon. gentleman who has proposed this resolution? (Cheers.) I do not think it necessary to detain the House very long in discussing a question which must be familiar to all; but I shall take this opportunity of showing that there is no parallel whatever between the two cases. Whatever hon. gentlemen opposite may say, Canada is not a beggarly country; Canada is not a country that is reduced in any way to great straits. The people of Canada to-day are in a fairly good condition at any rate. We have no mendicancy here to speak about; we have no people in the throes of despair. Every honest man who wishes to earn an honest day's pay by an honest day's labor can earn that honest day's pay. (Cheers.) Now, what I am about to quote is from Lecky's history:—

"The commercial clauses of the union laid the foundation of the material prosperity of Scotland, and they alone reconciled the most intelligent Scotchmen to the partial sacrifice of their nationality. The country was, indeed, reduced to a condition of chronic famine, and the emancipation of Scotch trade had become a cardinal object of every patriot. * * * The treaty of union, however, as it was finally carried, was drawn with great skill and with much consideration for the weaker nation. It provided that the land tax should be so arranged that when England contributed £48,000, or rather less than a fortieth part, that in consideration of the heavy English debt by which the taxation of the whole island would be increased, an equivalent of about £400,000 should be granted to Scotland."

Which was equal to six years of the annual revenue of Scotland, both from excise and customs. Now, I contend that there is no parallel whatever between the case of Canada and the case of Scotland at the time of union; but I think I can establish a parallel which cannot be denied. I think I shall be able to show that these hon. gentlemen who have been going about the country asserting that Canada is in the position of Scotland at the time of the union, and that this country would be benefitted to an enormous extent by the influx of American capital and by the opening of their market to us, are merely repeating here the arguments that were adduced by Castlereagh in the Irish Parliament in order to induce the people to give up their national autonomy, and become commercially as well as politically united with England, and enjoy the great benefits of unrestricted reciprocity. If anybody will take up Plowden's historical sketch of the Irish nation at the time of the union, he will find the *ipsissima verba* of those gentlemen falling from the lips of Castlereagh himself; and I think the spirit of that unfortunate statesman, no doubt, in a very tropical region just now, must be plundering and plagiarising his ideas, and not giving him credit for them. (Great cheers and laughter.) "The Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation," by Barrington, sets forth, in a very concise form, the arguments used at that time. He says:—

"At present, it must suffice to state the abstract points on which the arguments of Government for annexation were founded, and those by which they were so ably and unanswerably refuted: first, the distracted state of the Irish nation; secondly, the great commercial advantages of the union, which must eventually enrich Ireland by an extension of its commerce, the influx of British capital, and the confidence of England in the stability of its institutions, when guaranteed by the union. Thirdly, the Government pressed with great zeal the example of Scotland, which had so improved, and became so rich and prosperous after its annexation; a precedent which must ensue from a similar incorporation."

Those are the very advantages which are set forth by hon. gentlemen opposite, to be derived from us by unrestricted reciprocity—the enormous commercial advantages that would arise if we had access to the great markets on the other side, and the enormous amounts of capital that would flow into the country from the more wealthy people with whom we are asked to have that unrestricted reciprocity. What does Mr. Barrington say further :—

“The second ground of argument used by the supporters of the union, great commercial advantage, appeared still more fallacious. Its deception was too palpable to deceive the most ignorant of the people.” (Cheers.)

In the same way, the argument used here in favor of unrestricted reciprocity, based on the same supposition, is too palpably deceptive to hoodwink even the most ignorant man in the Dominion of Canada. Mr. Barrington goes on to say :—

“The crafty prediction that English capital would flow into Ireland when a union was effected, was a visionary deception. The third and most deceptive argument of the supporters of the union, because the most plausible, was the precedent of which, at that period, flowed in full tide upon the public of Scotland, and the great advantages derived by her in consequence of her union. Of all the false reasons, misstated facts, fallacious promises, and unfounded conclusions that any position ever was attempted to be supported on, the arguments founded on the Scottish precedent were the most erroneous, and no deception was ever more completely and fully detected than by the speeches made in the Irish Parliament in 1799 and 1800, and in several able pamphlets. First, as to the matter of fact, Scotland and Ireland, in their relations with England, stood on grounds diametrically opposite to each other on every point that could warrant a union on the one side, or reject it on the other.”

And the writer goes on to show that, in point of fact, Scotland never had representative institutions such as existed in Ireland, and such as exist in Canada to-day. Therefore, there is no parallel whatsoever in that case. But we have, I say, in the first place, with regard to the comparison and the parallel I am about to draw, the contiguity of Ireland to England and that of Canada to the United States. We have, in the second place, a similarity as regards population. There were then something over 4,000,000 in Ireland, and we have 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 people in Canada to-day. In the third place, the Irish Parliament had adopted the protective tariff, just as we have adopted the protective tariff of the National Policy; and we have the other point, that the people of England desired to make Ireland a slaughter market for their goods, just as the people of the United States desire to make Canada a slaughter market to-day. I contend that we have more ground for a parallel. We have in the history that preceded the union of England and Ireland, exactly a parallel case in the conduct of England towards that country as compared with the conduct of the United States towards us. For years the people of Ireland were anxious to have free commercial relations with the people of England, just as for years the people of Canada were knocking at the doors of our neighbors and asking them for free commercial intercourse. That commercial intercourse was refused by England. Laws were passed by the British Parliament striking at the woollen industries of Ireland; and England refused to have commercial intercourse with Ireland until 1827, when by the aid of the volunteers and the political exigencies of the period, Ireland obtained her own legislative independence, and her industries began to prosper by the adoption of a national policy for the protection of her home industries. (Cheers.) These industries were thus brought to the highest state of perfection. On the other hand, while the United States could not pass laws which would have operation in this country, they did pass legislation which was intended to affect us in a most detrimental manner. They abolished our first reciprocity treaty, the Elgin treaty. Our hon. friends opposite sent the late Hon. George Brown down to Washington to ask not merely reciprocity in natural products, but to a large extent in our manufactures as well; but the Americans refused to have anything to do with him. They later on refused to renew the Washington treaty, and last, but not least, as an evidence of the spirit that actuates them in their dealings with this country, they passed a law of non-intercourse, thus showing that a large section of that people were disposed, if possible, to crush Canada. Therefore, I claim that the parallel is established on all those points so completely as to defy contradiction. (Cheers.) Now, we have in Canada to-day certainly as large a number of manufactures and as varied a series of industries as any country could expect to have in the short time during which the National Policy has been in force. I would ask what was the effect in the past of the national policy upon the Irish people during the existence of the Grattan Parliament? I will take my quotations from the Loyal Repeal Association's report, which Daniel O'Connell presented to the people of Ireland in these words :—

“Fellow-countrymen, I dedicate these reports to you. They were written by one of yourselves for the benefit of all. They have met the approbation of the National Repeal Association, and, therefore, I have no hesitation in recommending them to your perusal.”

Later on, he proceeds to state in a general way that which I shall endeavor to prove from the statistics I hold in my hand—that from the year 1782 until the treaty of the union, Ireland increased in prosperity, her commerce largely extended, her agriculture augmented, her manufactures improved and increased, her people daily became more prosperous, and her gentry and nobility became enriched by the prosperity engendered on every side. What were the particular branches of trade and commerce that were specially benefitted by this national policy in Ireland? I shall begin by making some quotations from section 1st, entitled the woollen manufactures. It treated of the early woollen manufactures of Ireland, and shows what I have already pointed out, that the jealousy of the neighboring country was aroused by the great progress Ireland was making, and it gives here an extract from the address of the lords, stating that the growth and increase of woollen manufactures in Ireland had been and would be ever looked upon with great jealousy. And they asked that this may be the occasion of very strict laws "totally to prohibit and suppress the same." These laws having had their effect, the National Parliament was called upon to re-establish those industries, and what did the national policy do for the people of Ireland? The report goes on to say:—

"After the glorious era of 1782, when, by an unparalleled effort of national energy, Ireland had shaken off the shackles from her trade and achieved her legislative independence, the rapid advances she made in commercial and manufacturing prosperity are undeniably recorded. In ten years after, there was found to be in the city of Dublin sixty master clothiers, having 400 looms engaged in the making of broadcloths, 100 in the making of cassimeres, and employing 5,000 persons on these fabrics. A stronger proof of the prosperity of these times and of the deep interest which England has or ought to have in Irish prosperity, cannot be adduced than the fact that, although home manufacture was thus extensively promoted, the market of England had to be resorted to for supplying the demand arising from the better condition of the people. In 1782, the quantity of broadcloth imported into Ireland was 362,830 yards, and in 1790 the quantity of broadcloths imported was 653,899 yards. Meantime, the fostering guardianship of the Irish Parliament was constantly devoted to the encouragement and protection of the native manufactures. In 1785 they granted a sum of £5,000 to be expended in distributing looms, carding machines and other implements, and the establishment of woollen markets, and a further grant of £4,000 was made to pay apprentice fees with children to manufacturers. Other extensive grants were periodically made for the encouragement of cotton and silk manufactures."

And so on down to the end of the chapter. When we come to the particular places in which these industries sprung up, and where thousands upon thousands of people, under the national policy which was then inaugurated, found employment, and found plenty and prosperity for the country at large, we find that in Dublin:—
"It is ascertained from authentic documents that in 1800 there were in Dublin 91 master manufacturers in the woollen trade, and these 91 master employers kept 1,122 looms busy in the making of broadcloths, druggets and cassimeres; and the total number of hands employed in all branches were 4,938."

What was the result, only a few years afterwards, of that unrestricted reciprocity between the two countries, with all the barriers removed? They had been forced, as we are now asked, to go into unrestricted reciprocity with the neighboring nation. There was a protective policy in England at that time, as there is one on the other side of the line now. They were solemnly assured that all the wealth of England was to be poured into their lap, and their manufactures increased, their tall chimneys raised still higher to the skies, and to still greater prosperity throughout the land. What was the result?

"There are not more," he says, "than 250 woollen weavers employed in Dublin and its vicinity, and their average earnings for the last three years amount from 8s. to 10s. per week, making allowances for periods of idleness. At present—that is, in 1840—there are not more than 12 master manufacturers, and the aggregate number of persons employed by them 682, in all branches."

Then the wool combing business employed a host of men in a separate manufacture altogether. The carpet manufacture was a most prosperous industry.

"At the period of the union there were in Dublin thirteen master manufacturers, having 109 looms, which gave employment between weavers, spinners, dyers, helpers, etc., to 720 individuals."

They go on to say that the result of this unrestricted reciprocity with England, this commercial union with England, had affected the trade so much that it could hardly be said to exist at all. That was many years ago, 1840, and to-day it does not exist at all. In regard to the stuff and serge manufacture, they say:—

"We find that at the period of the union there were in Dublin twenty-five master manufacturers, having 1,120 looms, which gave employment to an equal number of weavers, and about 370 additional operatives,

being 1,491 persons. At present there is but one master manufacturer of this article in Dublin." That is, at the time these reports were printed. Then they say :—

"Another branch of the woollen trade was the flannel manufacture, the principal seat of which lay in the county of Wicklow; and it flourished to such an extent as to induce the Earl of Fitzwilliam to erect, at a cost of £3,500, an extensive market-place in the town of Rathdrum, which he called Flannel Hall, solely for the exhibition and sale of this article. There were twelve fairs held annually at Rathdrum, and the average number of pieces exhibited at each fair was from 1,000 to 10,000 pieces. This manufacture gave employment to at least 1,000 looms, and, allowing for preparatory processes, many thousand persons. In some years after the union, the manufacture began rapidly to decline. It was ascertained that in 1823 there were only 400 looms at work, 300 in 1826, 200 in 1827, 150 in 1828, and 100 in 1830. In 'his latter year (1830) the Flannel Hall was closed, and in 1832 only thirty looms could be counted, and in two years afterwards there was not a vestige of this formerly important and remunerative branch of industry. The flannel manufacture also gave employment to a class called 'finishers.'"

And they were wiped out as well as the rest. I may quote to you from Cork and its vicinity to show that there were forty-four employers in the year 1800, engaging 457 looms, and, allowing for operatives of various classes, the number of persons deriving wages was at least 2,500 in the city of Cork. "In 1883 there were only two master manufacturers left, who were employing 256 persons. The trade is now completely gone. The extensive factory of Mr. Lyons is converted into a bleaching green," as the result of this commercial union.

We shall see what this book says as to unrestricted reciprocity, and we may hope that Canada will guard against the same thing. (Cheers.) To go on to Limerick, it says :—

"About forty years ago there were in Limerick more than 1,000 woollen weavers, who were in constant employment, and in the enjoyment of comfort and independence. At present there are not seventy weavers in the city, and even these are scarcely able to provide a scanty subsistence."

In regard to Kilkenny, it says :—

"At the period of the union, there were no less than 56 manufacturers, principally engaged in the manufacture of blankets, for which fabric Kilkenny gained an unrivalled character. These employed among them all 333 looms, and in the various processes of the woollen manufacture there could not have been less than 3,000 altogether employed. At present there are not more than 100 employed. In 1800 there were 40 of the looms engaged in making superfine blankets, then technically called 'twelve-quarter blankets.' But such was the effect of the union that in three years afterwards everyone was thrown idle, and has since remained so. According to the returns appended to the Revenue Commissioners' report above referred to, there was in Kilkenny in 1822 twelve master manufacturers, employing among them 925 persons. The merino factory produced superfine cloths, which sold so high as from 26s. to 34s. per yard. The value of cloths made at this factory has reached £40,000 in one year."

These were the industries which were to be more progressive and more prosperous under the political and commercial union with England.

"Carrick-on-Suir was famous from an early period for its ratteens and friezes, having largely experienced the bounty of Parliament up to 1796 or 1797, in nurturing these manufactures. Even the finer descriptions of cloth were made here with a success."

He goes on to give the same tale of woe with regard to that industry as to all the others. He says :—

"However, immediately after the union, advantage was taken of a want of a domestic legislature, and influence was put to work whereby the standing order for obliging the military on the Irish establishments to be clothed here, was not only evaded, but in a short time totally rescinded, and supply thrown open to the competition of overpowering British capital and machinery. Mr. Moore retired; his successor followed his example, and from 400 to 600 persons were by that step immediately thrown out of bread. Henceforth the manufactures of Carrick presented but a sickly and faded existence. The amount of capital then invested exceeded £50,000; at present there are but 100 persons partially employed, and the wool-combing business has already altogether disappeared."

In Roscrea they were exactly in the same condition :—

"About 1800 the manufactures became centered in the hands of a few master manufacturers, and one of them employed beyond 600 persons; about three or four hundred more may have been engaged by others. This trade continued to flourish till the period of the peace, and soon after 1815 began to decline."

And so it goes on. Mr. Crotty was examined before the Assistant Inquiry Commissioners in 1834, and he gave the following testimony :—

"Six years ago 1,000 persons, of whom 600 or 700 were females, were employed by me in Roscrea or its immediate neighborhood. The females spun the worsted, and the men combed and wove the wool; the latter earned 1s. 8d. a day at combing and about 1s. 1d. a day at weaving; the women could not make more than 1½d. a day, but even this small sum being well applied, and for the most part to their own clothing, had a marked effect upon their appearance in general; all are completely destitute, and the husbands are wandering about looking for work."

That has been the effect of unrestricted reciprocity with a great market and a rich country, in so far as the woollen industries are concerned. The cotton manufacture in Dublin was exactly in the same condition. We find that the same results have happened with regard to cotton industry in Ireland from the effects of unrestricted reciprocity. The condition of the cotton manufactures in Dublin at the time of the union was as follows :—

"There were fifty-five master manufacturers engaged in the fabrics of cords, calicos, checks, shawls, fustians, muslins, dimities, etc., and several of them combined the business of spinning."

"There were from forty to fifty minor manufacturers, keeping from five to ten looms going, as undertakers for the larger manufacturers. The total number of looms kept in work by the foregoing are computed upon the most accurate account to have been 8,000, and the number of operatives to whom they gave bread in the various processes was upwards of 14,000."

Now, these people were all wiped out. In calico printing the same result took place, and I want to point out particularly to hon. gentlemen here what the direct result of it was, and what the direct result would be here with regard to certain manufactures. What happened with regard to calico printing? The calico printing was an important industry. They tell us :—

"This particular branch has been carried on to a great perfection, so much so that the Irish prints have often commanded a preference in the London market."

And yet he says :—

"It is a humiliating reflection that these very choice prints must be represented as London prints to secure a sale with the better classes. Nay more. Within the last four or five years our printed calicos have been extensively exported to the American market, and put up in boxes and labelled in imitation French packages, and then sold as French goods."

That was the effect of unrestricted reciprocity with a great and prosperous country that was overflowing with capital; the effect was that the Irish people actually had to put false labels upon their goods; they could not label their goods as their own, and in order to get rid of the little remnants that were left, they had to sell them almost under false pretences. In Bandon the same thing took place in regard to cotton prints. There were 2,800 cotton weavers engaged in the manufacture of the various branches. In Belfast the cotton trade is entirely wiped out. In 1799 :—

"There were 2,000 calico looms at Balbriggan at full work, making calicos for printing. There were also from 400 to 500 cord looms in that town and the adjoining parishes of Ardeath, Clonaboy, and Garristown. There were several eminent manufacturers here. Now, there are only 226 looms employed in Balbriggan, and the average earnings for each does not exceed six shillings per week."

That was the result at the time this book was published. They had been reduced down to that extremity, and now I am told they have disappeared.

I do not wish to read at greater length the reports upon this point, but we have in this volume evidence that must convince any man who has the slightest regard for the teachings of history, and when we read this tale of woe it should be one of warning to the people of Canada when they are told that the only thing they have to do is to go into commercial union or unrestricted reciprocity with our great neighbor alongside of us. (Prolonged cheers.) The industries of Ireland and everything connected with Irish prosperity was engulfed in the prosperity of the larger nation; and are we to be told, after the experience of the past, after what we have seen in this country, when Canada was made a slaughter market for surplus stocks of manufactured goods on the other side of the line—are we to be told, does it require anyone to tell the people what would again be the result if our markets were thrown open? Why, the result would be what it was formerly, only in a more acute degree. It may be said that that misery which came upon the people of Ireland could never prevail in

this Canada of ours. But such a statement cannot be made in my presence; I have seen what can result. (Cheers.) I have seen in Montreal with my own eyes strong men and willing men, with good stout hearts, who were willing and desirous of earning their living, forced to go to the soup kitchen and there ask for that charity which they were obliged to accept to their humiliation. We have seen men who have been earning, previous to the advent into power of hon. gentlemen opposite, as has been stated on public platforms by workingmen in Montreal over and over again, men earning \$2 and \$2.50 a day; and what was left open to them? To earn 60 cents or 70 cents a day, digging in public works around the canal basin, endeavoring to earn a miserable subsistence. Previous to the advent of the Opposition to power the workingmen of the country had been holding mass meetings to establish hours of labor and get larger pay. They claimed they should work only eight or nine hours a day, and yet afterwards, when hon. gentlemen opposite had assumed the reins of power, and the hon. member for South Oxford (Sir Richard Cartwright) directed the fiscal policy of the country, these workingmen were to be seen going about saying—"For God's sake, give us work for any number of hours, either day or night, in order to save our wives, children, and ourselves from starvation." That was the result. It is all very well for the hon. gentleman opposite to tell us that the question of unrestricted reciprocity has sunk down deep in the hearts of the people. But I can tell the hon. gentleman opposite that so long as the mover of this resolution is in public life never again will the people accept from him the fiscal gospel that is to lead them to salvation. (Great cheers.)

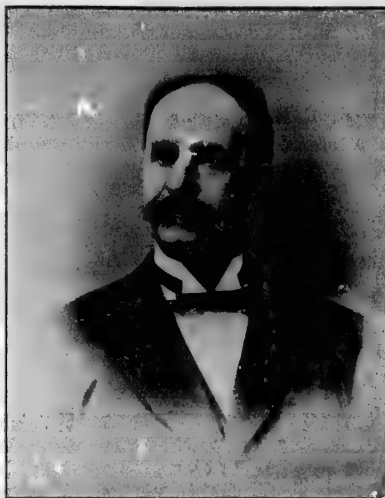


ALD. JOSEPH BRUNET.

ONE of the greatest pleasures that falls to the lot of a biographer is to write the history of a self-made man. There are so many born in the lap of luxury, who travel through life without the exercise of the slightest energy of brain power, that it is a pleasure to dilate on the successful endeavours of a man who has struggled through great obstacles in his early career and attained an enviable position later on in life.

Mr. Joseph Brunet, of whom we write, did not possess the advantages of a collegiate education, but his energy, intelligence and shrewd business capacity has advanced him to a foremost position among the manufacturers and contractors of Montreal.

Mr. Brunet was born at St. Vincent de Paul on 26th October, 1834. He received in his youth a sound elementary education, and at the age of 18 he associated himself with a firm of contractors in Montreal. In 1870 he began the manufacture of bricks, which business has developed to an enormous extent, chiefly owing to his pluck and energy in working out the details. His first introduction to business was accompanied by the usual difficulties, but his rare business tact and ability, combined with an unswerving honesty of purpose, soon overcame them, and his transactions increased beyond his most sanguine anticipations. He is exceedingly popular with his own immense, disinterested kindness population of the East End. city have always found in and advocate of their griev- they suffer," he tries to always ready to help and Besides his brick business, gaged in many other com- is a director of several prizes, which have pros- energetic ability. With a and good feeling to his company to build a road at a most fertile region and has to the settlers. He after- this road. He was one of of the St. Gabriel de Bran- ways interested himself in He was an active director Co., and a member of the since 1891. He was a lead- ing organizations and of the Joseph.



diating workmen, and his gen- is much appreciated by the The laboring men of the him a warm sympathizer ances. Knowing the "ills provide a remedy, and is assist any one in trouble. Mr. Brunet has been en- mercial transactions. He building and railway enter- pered chiefly through his strong feeling of patriotism compatriots he organised a Montford, which traversed been extremely beneficial wards became president of the founders and directors don Railway, and has all the work of colonization. of the Montreal Exposition Chambre de Commerce ing member of several build- Unions St. Pierre and St.

He commenced public life in 1872, being elected for St. Louis Ward in the Municipal Councils. He retired of his own accord in 1878, and five years later was chosen to represent St. James Ward, which seat he has retained ever since. He is a prominent member of the Roads and Health Committees, and his valuable services were duly recognized by being elected by his constituents, in 1894, by the largest majority ever polled by a candidate for civic honors. His consistent attention to his municipal duties has been properly appreciated by his confreres in the City Council by appointing him their representative on the Catholic Board of School Commissioners. The many important measures that have recently introduced into the City Council, involving in many cases the expenditure of large sums of money, have been closely watched by him with a due consideration for the interests of the city and a proper regard for the interests of his constituents, and possessing as he does a sound practical knowledge of civic affairs, the services he has rendered to the citizens generally cannot be over-estimated.

In politics Mr. Brunet is a staunch Liberal and has rendered many valuable services to his party. From 1890 to 1892 he represented the St. James Ward in the Provincial Legislature, and his curt, precise business speeches always commanded respect and attention. Of a quiet and retiring disposition, he does not particularly relish the turmoils and troubles of political life, and is apparently more content with the quieter spheres of action in which his influence can be felt. All his operations have been conducted and brought to success by untiring energy, business tact and judgment, and sound common sense.

WILLIAM CLENDINNENG.

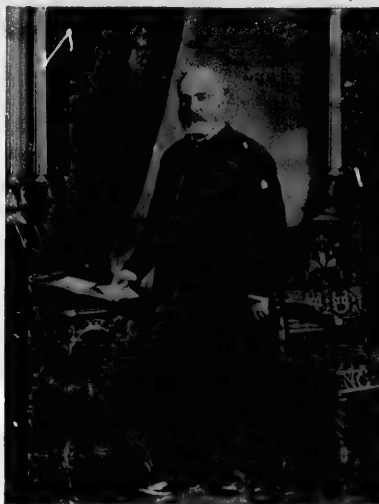
MOULDED, as if in the foundry of his own making, cast in the frames of his own setting, Wm. Clendinneng holds in the esteem of the citizens of Montreal the same solid substantial riches that he has carved out by his push and energy in the business community of the world. It was a hot, weary day in the month of June, the day prior to St. Peter and St. Paul's day, that I met him. His individualism was a strong picture of his surroundings; his face denoted character; the determined opening and closing of his eyes when in conversation conveyed the impression of a deep thinker; the stiff, steady growth of beard told of his physical endurance, while the total absence of glittering dress or ornamentation spoke of the man of solidity and assured business position.

Wm. Clendinneng, the founder of his own fortune, although possibly sixty-two years of age, possesses the faculty of grasping the drift of affairs without difficulty. He is of medium height, solidly built, and like Napoleon or Wellington always commands his own forces.

His knowledge of the foremost men of the day; his familiarity with the leading gentlemen of prominent political standing; his intimacy with the current financial topics of the hour; his love and appreciation of literature, the deep problem of metaphysics or sociology, within his reach; his science makes Mr. Clendinneng the battle of politics and it the time is within call when shoulders of his fellow citizens in their gift.

He is the laboring capitalist in the sense of est aspiration is to see the and labor settled on a basis satisfied, and to that end he many hours of deep thought

Mr. Clendinneng was 1833 and came to Montreal of age. In 1852 he acted Rodden, and the zeal and to be admitted into partnership developed to such an to go into business on his proved a judicious one and sanguine anticipation. His business which has assumed is steadily increasing year



of metaphysics or sociology constant study of political neng strong and useful in may safely be predicted that he will be lifted on the zens to one of the highest

man's strongest friend. A having earned it, his great vexed question of capital where all concerned can be has given this great problem and attention.

born at Cavan, Ireland, in when he was fourteen years as clerk to the late Mr. ability displayed caused him ship. His business capacity that he determined own account. This step has fully justified his most has built up an extensive gigantic proportions, and by year.

Besides the railway and contractors' castings, balconies, funnels, etc., their stoves, furnaces, boilers and heaters are used all over Canada. One great branch of manufacture is that of gas and water pipes, which are turned out in enormous quantities, in sizes varying from four to forty inches in diameter. This department is carried on under the title of the Canada Pipe and Foundry Company, in which the Clendinneng firm has the largest controlling interest. The foundry and workshops are situated at Montreal and St. Henri, in which hundreds of employees obtain steady and constant work.

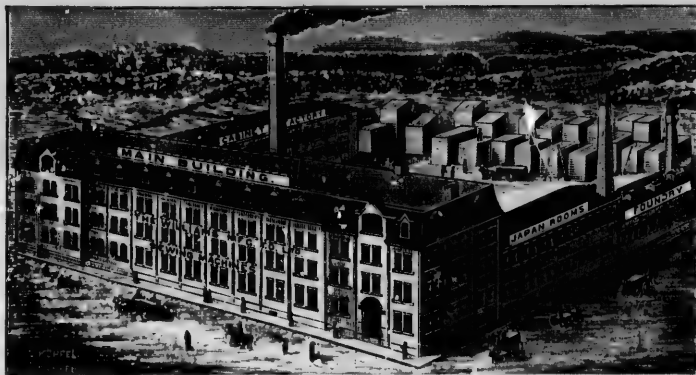
Mr. Clendinneng has always shown a decided interest in the welfare of his people, and watches with a fatherly solicitude the career of the younger ones. Many of the older hands now occupying honorable positions have to thank him for his timely assistance and advice.

Mr. Clendinneng has always taken a prominent part in municipal matters, and his shrewd business intelligence has proved of great service to his fellow citizens and very beneficial to the interests of the city.

In 1890, he, in conjunction with Ald. Hurteau, were authorized by the City Council to raise a considerable loan in London, England. This mission was performed in a very satisfactory manner and since then he has been intimately associated with many other civic financial undertakings.

Mr. Clendinneng ably represented St. Antoine Ward in the city council for a number of years. He also represented Montreal West in the Quebec Legislature, where he made himself felt on more than one occasion.

THE WILLIAMS MANUFACTURING COMPANY, LTD.



This business has had, in its rise and progress, a history of peculiar interest, affording many an illustration of those recognized principles which govern the commercial world, and a steady adherence to which is so certain to win prosperity. It has been in existence now for about thirty-eight years, having been founded in 1858, in Boston, Mass., by Charles W. Williams. He was for years involved in troublesome litigation with the "Combination" that con-

trolled all vital patents on Sewing Machines, and finally, in consequence, came to Canada. He commenced business in that part of Montreal known as "Griffintown," in 1864, and prospered so well that he was, in 1869, obliged to move to extensive premises on St. Germain street (now Dowd street).

In the year 1872 things were in so happy and thriving a condition as to warrant the formation of a Stock Company, the existing Plant being materially increased. The Corporate name of the Company at this time was "The C. W. Williams Manufacturing Company," and its capital was \$500,000.

The position of the business was rapidly becoming enviable. It enjoyed a popularity in foreign countries almost unrivalled. In the United States the demand assumed such proportions as to warrant steps being taken to obviate the duties being levied against such goods on the American side of the line.

In 1878 a Branch was started at Rouses Point, N.Y., the equipment of which was so rapidly increased that it became necessary to effect a removal to Plattsburg, and there erect permanent works. These were completed in 1882, and have been run continuously ever since.

Meanwhile, the Montreal business had so enlarged that better accommodation was required, and the land at present occupied in St. Henri was purchased in 1878, the business being removed there from St. Germain street in the following year. The new premises were totally destroyed by fire in March, 1883; and it is worth telling that while the flames were raging, telegrams were being sent to various machinery builders for new plant. The erection of new buildings was at once set about, and pushed with so much energy that all was again in running order in September of the same year! In the meantime, to supply customers, the works of the "Belmont Company" had been purchased and utilized, and machines imported from the Plattsburg Works.

The starting of the Works at Plattsburg in 1882 caused a change in the designation of the Company, the name then becoming "The Williams Manufacturing Company, Ltd.," and at the same time a Charter was obtained under the laws of the State of New York, so that the Company has since enjoyed a two-fold life.

At Plattsburg the "Helpmate" machine is the leading feature, and has become known throughout the States as a standard article of merit.

The "New Williams" machine, manufactured at Montreal, has had a phenomenal success, and is now a household word from end to end of the Dominion. It is also a favorite in foreign lands.

Recently another useful and helpful article has been added to the products of the Company, namely, the "Empire" typewriter, which, while equal to anything yet introduced in the same line, is sold at a popular price, really half the ordinary price of such a machine.

The affairs of the Company have always been guided by men who ranked as Montreal's leading citizens—Sir Hugh Allan, Andrew Allan, and Alexander Mitchell having been Presidents. The present Directorate is as follows:—Hugh McLennan, Esq., President; Hon. Smith M. Weed, Vice-President; G. M. Kinghorn, Frederick Fairman, Hon. Geo. S. Weed, Barthlett McLennan, and C. W. Davis, Managing Director.

The effort of the Company, as has been said, is not confined to sewing machines only, as they have facilities for any similar work. They have their own Foundry and Cabinet Departments, and will undertake anything within their scope that promises profit. The combined facilities of both Factories are equal to the production of from forty to fifty thousand machines annually.

WEBSTER'S CHANGE OF VIEWS.

SPEECH OF MR. WEBSTER OF MASSACHUSETTS, ON THE TARIFF IN THE SENATE, JULY 25 AND 27, 1846.

AND now, sir, with the leave of the Senate, I shall proceed to consider the effects of this bill upon some of those interests which have been regarded as protected interests.

I shall not argue at length the question whether the government has committed itself to maintain interests that have grown up under laws such as have been passed for thirty years back. I will not argue the question, whether, looking to the policy indicated by the laws of 1789, 1817, 1824, 1828, 1832, and 1842, there has been ground for the industrious and enterprising people of the United States, engaged in home pursuits, to expect protection from the government for internal industry. The question is, do these laws or do they not, from 1789 till the present time, constantly show and preserve a purpose, a policy, which might naturally and really induce men to invest property in manufacturing undertakings and commit themselves to these pursuits in life? Without lengthened arguments, I shall take this for granted.

But, sir, before I proceed further with this part of the case, I will take notice of what appears to be some attempt, latterly, by the republication of opinions and expressions, arguments and speeches of mine, at an earlier and later period of life, to place me in a condition of inconsistency, on this subject of the protective policy of the country. Mr. President, if it be an inconsistency to hold an opinion upon a subject of public policy to-day, in one state of circumstances, and to hold a different opinion upon the same subject of public policy to-morrow, in a different state of circumstances, if that be an inconsistency, I admit its applicability to myself. Nay, sir, I will go further, and in regard to questions which, from their nature, do not depend upon circumstances for their true and just solution,—I mean constitutional questions,—if it be an inconsistency to hold an opinion to-day, even upon such a question, and on that same question to hold a different opinion a quarter of a century afterwards, upon a more comprehensive view of the whole subject, with a more thorough investigation into the original purposes and objects of that Constitution, and especially with a more thorough exposition of those objects and purposes by those who framed it, and have been entrusted to administer it, I should not shrink even from that imputation. I hope I know more of the constitution of my country than I did when I was twenty years old. I hope I have contemplated its great objects more broadly. I hope I have read, with deeper interests, the sentiments of the great men who framed it. I hope I have studied with more care the condition of the country when the convention assembled to form it. *And yet I do not know that I have much, sir, to retract or to change on these points.**

But, sir, I am of the opinion of a very eminent person who had occasion, not long since, to speak of this topic in another place. Inconsistencies of opinion, arising from changes of circumstances, are often justifiable. But there is one sort of inconsistency which is culpable. It is the inconsistency between a man's convictions and his vote; between his conscience and his conduct. No man shall ever charge me with an inconsistency like that. And now, sir, allow me to say, that I am quite indifferent, or rather thankful to these conductors of the public press who think they cannot do better than now and then to spread my poor opinions before the public. [A laugh.]

I have said many times, and it is true, that up to the year 1824, the people of that part of the country to which I belong, being addicted to commerce, having been successful in commerce, their capital being very much engaged in commerce, were adverse to entering upon a system of manufacturing operations. Every member in Congress from the State of Massachusetts, with the exception of one, I think, voted against the act of 1824. But what were we to do? Were we not bound, after '17 and '24, to consider that the policy of the country was settled, had become settled, as a policy, to protect the domestic industry of the country by

* Mr. Webster gave the following reasons in Boston why protection should be borne:

"We see (said Mr. Webster) most enlightened nations which have adopted this artificial system, are tired of it; we see the most distinguished men in England, for instance, of all parties, condemning it. The only difference of opinion is, whether the disease is not so inveterate as to yield to no remedy which would not produce greater evils. The only difference is, whether it be an evil grievous but to be borne, but a grievous evil not to be borne. He alluded to England, because her example had been so often quoted as a model for our imitation. But why should we adopt, on her example, what she herself laments, and would be glad to be rid of?"

solemn laws? The leading speech which ushered in the act of '24 was called a speech for an "American System." The bill was carried principally by the Middle States. Pennsylvania and New York would have it so; and what were we to do? Were we to stand aloof from the occupations which others were pursuing around us? Were we to pick clean teeth on a constitutional doubt, which a majority in the councils of the nation had overruled? No, sir; we had no option. All that was left us was to fall in with the settled policy of the country; because if anything can ever settle the policy of the country, or if anything can ever settle the practical construction of the Constitution of the country, it must be these repeated decisions of Congress, and enactments of successive laws conformable to these decisions. New England, then, did fall in. She went into the manufacturing operations, not from original choice, but from the necessity or the circumstances in which the public councils had placed her. And for one, I resolved then, and have maintained that resolution ever since, that, having compelled the Eastern States to go into these operations for a livelihood, the country was bound to fulfil the just expectations which it had inspired.

I now come, Mr. President, to the last topic on which I propose to trespass on the patience of the Senate; it is the effect of the change proposed by this bill upon the general employment, labor, and industry of the country. And I would beg, sir, in this view, to ask the reading of a petition which has been lying on my table for some days, but which I have not had an opportunity to present. It is a very short petition from the mechanics and artisans of the city of Boston. [The Clerk then read the petition.] Now, sir, these petitioners remonstrate against this bill, not in behalf of corporations and great establishments, not in behalf of rich manufacturers, but in behalf of "men who labor with their own hands," whose "only capital is their labor," and "who depend on that labor for their support, and for anything they may be able to lay up."

Mr. President, he who is the most large and liberal in the tone of his sentiments towards all the interests of all parts of the country; he who most honestly and firmly believes that these interests, though various, are consistent; that they all may well be protected, preserved, and fostered by a wise administration of law under the existing Constitution of the United States; and he who is the most expansive patriot, and wishes well and equally well, to every part of the country, even he must admit that, to a great extent there is a marked division and difference between the plantation States of the South, and the masses in the agricultural and manufacturing States of the North. There is a difference growing out of early Constitutions, early laws and habits, and resulting in a different description of labor; and to some extent, with the most liberal sentiments and feelings, every man who is concerned in enacting laws with candor, justice, and intelligence must pay a proper regard to that distinction. The truth is, that in one part of the country labor is a thing more unconnected with capital than in the other. Labor, as an earning principle, or as an element of society working for itself, with its own hopes of gain, enjoyment and competence, is a different thing from that labor which in the other part of the country attaches to capital, rises and falls with capital, and is in truth a part of capital. Now, sir, in considering the general effect of the change sought to be brought about, or likely to be brought about by this bill, upon the employment of men in this country, regard is properly to be paid to this difference which I have mentioned; yet it is at the same time true, that there are forms of labor, especially along the seacoast and along the rivers, in all the Southern States, which are to be affected by this bill as much as the labor of any portion of the Middle or Northern States. The artisan in every State has just the same interest—the same at the South as at the North. And this is at the foundation of all our laws, from 1789 downward, which have in view the protection of American labor. The first purpose, the first object was, the full protection of the labor of these artisans. That subject was gone over the other day by my friend from Maryland [Mr. Johnson], who presented to the consideration of the Senate the first memorial ever sent to Congress on the subject of protection. It was from the city of Baltimore, and it was in 1789. And from that day to this, Baltimore has been more earnest and steady in her attachment to a system of law, which she supposed gave encouragement to her artisans, than almost any other city of the Union. I say she has been steady and earnest, sir. If she has ever faltered, for a moment, she will, in a moment, resume her attitude, and pursue her accustomed course.

Now, sir, taking the mass of men as they exist amongst us, what is it that constitutes their prosperity? Throughout the country, perhaps more especially at the North, from early laws and habits, there is a distribution of all the property accumulated in one generation, among the whole succession of sons and daughters in the next. Property is everywhere distributed as fast as it is accumulated, and not in more than one case out of a hundred is there any accumulation beyond the earnings of one or two generations. The consequence of this is, a great division of property into small parcels, and a considerable equality in the condition of a great portion of the people; and the next consequence is, that out of the whole mass, there is a very small proportion, hardly worthy of being named, that does not pursue some active business for a living. Who is there

that lives on his income? How many, out of millions of prosperous people between this place and the British Provinces, and throughout the North and West, are there, who live without being engaged in active business? None; the number is not worth naming. This is, therefore, a country of labor. I do not mean manual labor entirely. There is a great deal of that, but I mean some sort of employment that requires personal attention, either of oversight or manual performance, some form of active business. This is the character of our people, and that is the condition of our people. Our destiny is labor. Now, what is the first great cause of prosperity with such a people? Simply, employment. Why, we have cheap food and cheap clothing, and there is no sort of doubt that these things are very desirable to all persons of moderate circumstances, and laborers. But they are not the first requisites. The first requisite is that which enables men to buy food and clothing, cheap or dear. And if I were to illustrate my opinions on this subject, by example, I should take, of all the instances in the world, the present condition of Ireland.

I am not about to prescribe, Mr. President, forms of legislation for Ireland, or principles to the Parliament of Great Britain for the government of Ireland. I am not about to suggest any remedy for the bad state of things which exists in that country; but what that state of things is, and what has produced it, is just as plain and visible to my view as a turnpike road; and I confess that I am astonished, that learned and intelligent men, who seem to have been brought up under certain notions, or systems, which appear to have turned their eyes from the true view of the case, have been unable to solve the Irish problem. Well, now, what is it? Ireland is an over-peopled country, it is said. It has eight and a half millions of people on an area of thirty-one thousand, eight hundred square miles. It is, then, a very dense population; perhaps a thicker population, upon the whole, than England. But why are the people of Ireland not prosperous, contented and happy? We hear of a potato panic, and a population in Ireland distressed by the high price of potatoes. Why, sir, the price of potatoes in this city is three times the price of potatoes in Dublin; and at this moment potatoes are twice as dear throughout the United States as throughout Ireland. There are potatoes enough, or food of other kinds, but the people are not able to buy it. And why? That is the stringent question. Why cannot the people of Ireland buy potatoes or other food? The answer to this question solves the Irish case; and that answer is simply this: The people have not employment. They cannot obtain wages. They cannot earn money. The sum of their social misery lies in these few words. There is no adequate demand for labor. One-half, or less than one-half, of all the strong and healthy laborers of Ireland are quite enough to fulfil all demand, and occupy all employments. Does not this admitted fact explain the whole case? If but half the laborers are employed, or the whole employed but half the time, or in whatever form of division it be stated; if the result is, that there is, in so thickly a peopled country, only half enough of employment for labor and industry, who need to be surprised to find poverty and want the consequence? And who can be surprised, then, that other evils, not less to be lamented, should also be found to exist among a people of warm temperament and social habits and tendencies? It would be strange, if all these results should not happen.

But, then, this only advances the enquiry to the real question—Why are the laboring people of Ireland so destitute of useful and profitable employment? This is a question of the deepest interest to those who are charged with the duty of remedying the evil, if it can be remedied. But it is rather beside any present purpose of mine. It may be said, in general, that Ireland has been unfortunate, as well as badly governed. In the course of two centuries, much the greater part of the soil of Ireland, generally supposed as much as nine-tenths, has been forfeited to the crown, and by the crown given or sold to persons in England, the heads of opulent families or others. These new English proprietors are known as absentee landlords. They own a vast portion of the island. The absentee landlord is not a man who has grown up in Ireland, and has gone over to England to spend his income. He may be a man who never saw Ireland in his life. I have heard of families, no member of which has visited its Irish estates for half a century, the lands being all the time under "rack-rent," in the hands of "middlemen," and all pressing the peasantry and labor to the dust.

There is a strange idea, at least it seems strange to me, which most respectable men entertain on this subject of Ireland. Mr. McCulloch, so highly distinguished an authority, for example, will insist upon it, that there is no evil in Irish absenteeism, because he proceeds on the theory which, he says, admits of no exception—that it is best for a man to buy where he can buy cheapest. Well, that is undoubtedly so, if he have the means for buying. Now, if Irish absenteeism did not diminish the employment of the people of Ireland, and so diminish their means of buying, the argument would hold. But who does not see, that if the landlord lived in Ireland consuming for his family and retainers the products of Ireland, it would augment the employment of Ireland? It seems clear to me that residence would not only give general countenance and encouragement to the laboring classes, and benefit both landlord and tenant, by dispensing with the services

of middle-men, but that it would also do positive good, by producing new demands for labor. From early times the English government has discouraged in Ireland every sort of manufacture, except the linen manufactured in the north. It has, on the other hand, encouraged agriculture. It has given bounties on wheat exported. The consequence has come to be this, that the surface of Ireland is cut up into so many tenements and holdings, that every man's labor is confined to such a small quantity of land, that there is not half employment for labor, and the lands are cultivated miserably after all. Mr. McCulloch says that four-fifths of the labor of Ireland is laid out upon the land. There is no other source of employment or occupation. This land being under a "rack-rent," is frequently in little patches, sometimes of not more than a quarter of an acre, merely to raise potatoes, the cheapest kind of food. This is the reason why labor is nothing, and can produce nothing but mere physical living, until the system shall be entirely changed. This constitutes the great difference between the state of things in Europe and America. In Europe, the question is, how men can live. With us, the question is, how well they can live. Can they live on wholesome food, in commodious and comfortable dwellings? Can they be well clothed, and be able to educate their children? Such questions do not arise to the political economists of Europe. When reasoning on such cases as that of Ireland, the question with them is, how physical being can be kept from death. That is all.

FREE TRADE ENCOURAGES DOMESTIC LABOR.

I will now proceed, sir, to state some objections of a more general nature to the course of Mr. Speaker's observations. He seems to me to argue the question as if all domestic industry were confined to the production of manufactured articles; as if the employment of our own capital and our own labor in the occupations of commerce and navigation were not as emphatically domestic industry as any other occupation. Some other gentlemen, in the course of the debate, have spoken of the price paid for every foreign manufactured article as so much given for the encouragement of foreign labor, to the prejudice of our own, but is not every such article the product of our own labor as truly as if we had manufactured it ourselves? Our labor has earned it, and paid the price for it. It is so much added to the stock of national wealth. If the commodity were dollars, nobody would doubt the truth of this remark, and it is precisely as correct in its application to any other commodity as to silver. One man makes a yard of cloth at home; another raises agricultural products and buys a yard of imported cloth. Both these are equally the earnings of domestic industry, and the only questions that arise in the case are two: the first is, which is the best mode, under all the circumstances, of obtaining the article; the second is, how far this question is proper to be decided by government, and how far it is proper to be left to individual discretion. There is no foundation for the distinction which attributes to certain employments the peculiar appellation of American industry; and it is, in my judgment, extremely unwise to attempt such discriminations



THE CANADA PAINT COMPANY, LTD.,

MONTREAL, TORONTO & VICTORIA, B.C.

Manufacturers of Paints, Colors, Varnishes, Etc.

WHEN the tourist gets within sight of the city of Montreal, the metropolis of the Dominion, his attention cannot fail to be attracted by the large number of lofty spires of the various places of worship towering up from the forest of buildings, stretching for several miles parallel with the river St. Lawrence. But there is still something which appears to us, must be even more conspicuous to the eye of the traveler, and which cannot escape his observation, that is the hundreds of tall chimneys belching forth their clouds of smoke, which indicates the busy hive of manufacturing establishments, that are to be found in almost every part of the city, and which must certainly impress upon the mind of the stranger that Montreal is the great manufacturing centre of the Dominion.

While all this may be seen from a distance, there is yet a very large number of manufacturing industries equipped with the most modern and improved machinery, constantly kept in motion with a large number of busy attendants converting the raw material into the finest manufactured article ready for the market, without the slightest outward indication of their existence except the humming sound of the machines. These factories are located on the Lachine canal, and are run by immense water-wheels which are driven by huge volumes of water descending from one level of the canal to another. Conspicuous amongst them is the works of the Canada Paint Company, whose Montreal factory is situated at St. Gabriel Locks.

This Company, which is one of the most extensive in their line in the Dominion, and of which Mr. S. F. McKinnon, of Toronto, is president, was incorporated in 1892, for the purpose of consolidating the operations of the three largest paint factories in the Dominion.

The operations of the Company are extremely varied, their range of manufactures being probably greater than that of any paint making establishment on the Continent. They are extensively engaged in utilizing Canadian deposits, the most important being the Bog Ore, which is procured from near Three Rivers, from which they manufacture a variety of red, brown and purple paints of great beauty. They are also engaged in mining Canadian Graphite, for painting structural iron work, roofs of railway cars and such purposes.

In their Montreal factory, which is one of the best equipped in the Dominion, is manufactured colors from the original chemicals in great variety of shades. These colors are used while still wet for wall paper manufacture, and also for paper staining, subsequently being dried, are used for the manufacture of paints for carriage builders, decorators, artists and others.

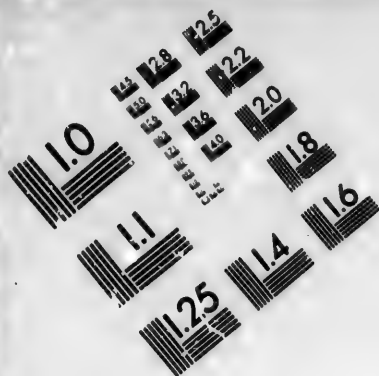
Among the colors manufactured is Paris green, for which there has been a very large demand, for the purpose of saving the potato plants from the bug. This insect costs the Canadian farmer \$100,000 a year in Paris green, of which the Company under notice manufacture the greater quantity.

Prominent among their manufactures are paints of all shades prepared ready for use, which are, by means of elaborate and intricate machinery, ground, tinted, thinned down, strained, weighed and packed into cans with remarkable rapidity and accuracy. Of these ready prepared paints there are about one million packages sold per annum for house purposes, in addition to paints prepared in varnish, which are used for carriage painting as well as for enamel home decoration.

The Company are large importers of varnish gums from New Zealand, South Africa and the East Indies. These are used in the manufacture of varnishes, mainly for the carriage and furniture manufacturing industries, as well as for general purposes.

The consumption of linseed oil in these several factories is simply wonderful, and we learn that Canada does not yet produce much over one third of what is required for the purposes of the Dominion, the remaining two-thirds being imported mainly from England. The linseed acreage in Canada has been steadily increasing, but there is surely in the consumption of this oil a large demand for extending the area, and thereby retaining in the Dominion nearly \$350,000 which annually sent to England for linseed oil.

The value to the labour market of a manufacturing concern such as the Canada Paint Company, may be estimated from the fact that their direct wages bill is about \$90,000 per annum, in addition to which they



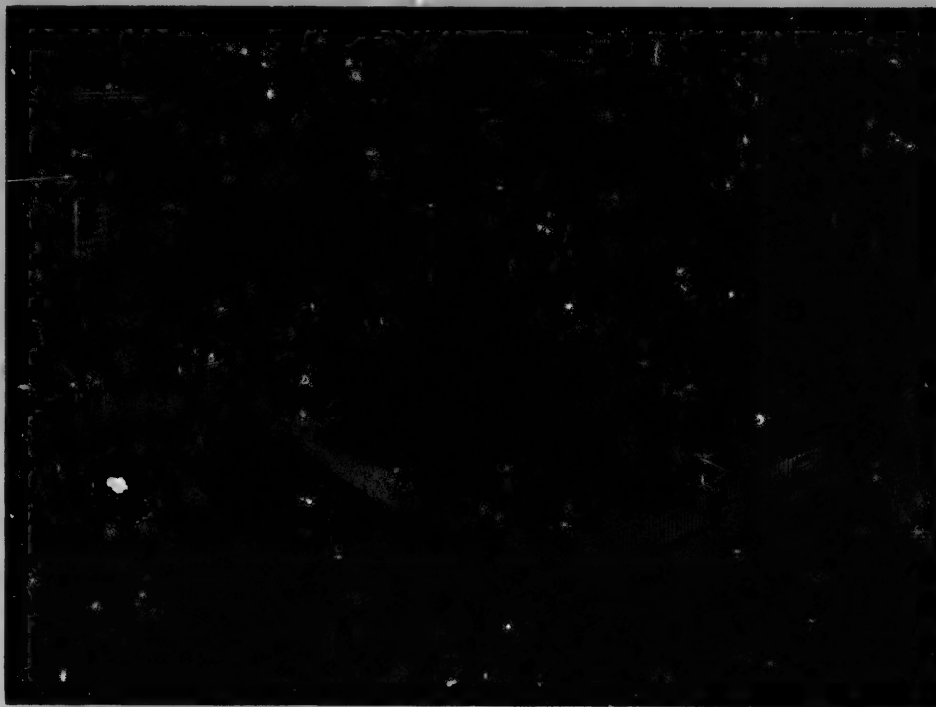
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afford a very large amount of employment for the manufacture of the millions of small packages and of labels used by them, not to speak of the coal consumption, cartage, railway haulage, travelling expenditure, and other direct and indirect contributions to the labour market.

The business of this large corporation is conducted in a most able efficient and systematic manner by the genial and thoroughly qualified managing-director, Mr. Robert Munro, formerly partner and manager of the firm of Alexander Fergusson & Co., of Glasgow, Scotland.

There are numerous other factories engaged in one or other branch of the same business, so that competition is most active and direct importation from other markets is steadily decreasing.



CANADA PAINT COMPANY'S WORKS, MONTREAL.

Notwithstanding the business depression that has been existing for some time past, the volume of trade entrusted to the Canada Paint Company during the present year has been somewhat unprecedented. This state of affairs is no doubt owing to the fact that the Company is always what might be called up-to-date in their appliances and methods in handling their very extensive and ever increasing business. The following extract from the June letter of the Company to their constituents goes to show the amount of business that is being done: "The sudden rush of business in the very beginning of May, which continued throughout the month, tried our resources to the utmost, and during part of the month we were unable to keep pace with orders, so that many shipments were not made with our wonted promptitude. By way of explanation, we venture to submit report of our auditor, John Hyde, Esq., Public Accountant and Secretary of the White Lead Association of Canada, certifying that during the month we turned out 233,695 packages of goods, representing 8,988 per working day during the entire month."

HON. JAMES McSHANE.

MONTREAL, the commercial metropolis of the Dominion, with all its wealth and splendor has to suffer the incubus that weighs down all large cities, viz: poverty and destitution. To relieve this, many charitable institutions have been established and large numbers of open-hearted citizens generously respond to all appeals for assistance. Among these benevolent individuals, there is no one who has shown a more liberal disposition and a more genuine sympathy in all cases of trouble than the Hon. James McShane. Ever ready to listen to the piteous cry of the unfortunate, he with kindly words of cheer and comfort immediately takes steps to alleviate their distress. It is this promptness of action, springing from his impulsive generosity, which is disseminated without distinction of race or creed, that has endeared him to the masses of the people, and has earned for him the popular title of the "People's Jimmy," a term which he greatly appreciates.

Mr. McShane was born on St. Joseph Street, in Montreal, in 1834, shortly after his parents came from Armagh, Ireland. He received the rudiments of education at the school presided over by Mr. Daniel Mahoney and afterwards completed his studies at the Sulpician College, then existing on College Street. He began business, when eighteen years of age, with his father, who was at that time the most extensive cattle dealer, packer and exporter. In 1869 he retired from business again on St. Francois X. largely in local and New York and Grain. In 1874, Roddick of Liverpool, began Canada and the United being the pioneer of a trade the most extraordinary of the largest exports of the extensive contracts may be he has had from ten to cattle on the Atlantic at one

He represented St. years, was a most able, man, always taking a for-Mayor in 1891, defeating largest majority ever polled. was counted out (although by the men whom he had against the city.

He is a Governor of the Director of St. Bridget's Patrick's Society, ex-Presi-

Club, and Hon. President Chief Ranger of two Orders of Foresters, Member of the Chicago and Montreal Boards of Trade, Member of the Corn Exchange, Member Chambre de Commerce, and of four Social Clubs, and an ex-member of the Harbor Board and of the Provincial Legislative Assembly for Montreal West and Centre. In 1887 he accepted the portfolio of Minister of Public Works and Agriculture, under the Mercier Administration, but retired from it at the end of two years. The cause has never been known as he remained faithful to his oath of office and faithful to his Liberal principles. During this period, he provided the working-classes of Quebec and Montreal, who were then suffering from great depression, with work during the hard winters. The workmen of Quebec, as a mark of appreciation, presented him with a gold watch, chain and signet of the value of \$600, and he was earnestly requested by them to stand for the House of Commons in Quebec where he would be elected. When Mayor of Montreal, the working-man had a true friend. He reduced the Water tax, fought the monopolists and jobbery of all kinds and was faithful to the people. His love for his native city of Montreal was evinced by his jealous regard when upholding the dignity and position as Mayor, and during the whole of his Parliamentary career he always guarded the interests of the city, even in opposition to the members of his own party.

A fearless and conscientious citizen, a thorough patriot and believer in the great future of Canada, an upright and impartial law-giver, an ardent and sympathetic champion of the rights of the laboring classes, a faithful friend and manly foe, the Hon. James McShane will always have a niche in the hearts of his fellow citizens.



of meat in the country. In 1890 he opened a business on St. Francois X. Street, began operating York stocks, and in Chicago he, in conjunction with Mr. the shipping of cattle from States to England, thus which has expanded into mensons and ranks among county. Some idea of his derived from the fact that fifteen steamers loaded with time.

Ann's Ward for over twenty zealous and energetic alderward lead and was elected ex-Mayor Grenier by the On the next occasion he elected by a large majority) thwarted in their designs

Montreal General Hospital, Asylum, President of St. dent Shamrock Lacrosse

CAPITAL AND LABOR.

SOME PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS, WITH THE BEARING OF CHRISTIANITY ON THE SUBJECT.

*An Address before the Young Men's Christian Association of Montreal.**by George Hague.*

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

THE metaphysical terms, Labor and Capital, constantly give rise to many misconceptions, and in this, which I desire to be a practical paper, I have throughout looked at them in the concrete, and considered the subject as a question of Laborers and Capitalists, as well as of Employers and Employed.

In entering upon this subject, I begin by saying that it is one in which I have, not been without practical experience.

I have been a servant of others all my life, and can therefore speak from the standpoint of a servant.

I have known by practical experience what continuous hard work, for years together, means. And if any man here has had more experience of hardship for long continued years than I have, his lot is not to be envied.

At the same time, for long periods together, I have had intimate opportunities of knowing the views of the class of employers and the men of large capital.

The subject, therefore, is not a strange one to me.

EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYED.

In entering upon active life, when a man becomes old enough to choose, it is always a practical question: Shall he commence for himself or shall he serve another? If he commences for himself, he takes the risk along with the chance, of success or failure. If he serves another he is safe from the risk of loss, but he gives up the chance of sharing in success. These two go inevitably together. No man can at the same time be exempt from loss, and be a sharer of profit.

In entering on the service of another he becomes a party to a contract. There are many forms of contract, but they all resolve themselves into this:—You pay me so much money and I will do certain work. The Employé gets his money whether the Employer makes or loses. The law very properly protects him. The Employer may go on getting no return for years, and even losing a portion of his capital year after year, yet the workman gets paid. He is exempt from all the care, anxiety and fear that beset every man carrying on business for himself.

THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE.

The Land, it is said, is the inheritance of the People. "The Heavens are the Lord's, but the Earth hath He given to the children of men." Perfectly true. God did not give the world to beasts, nor to angels, but to mankind. But the point is—how is the world to be divided up?

One may say: No man has any right to property in land at all, which surely carries with it that no State has any right to it either, for a State is only an aggregation of men. But with regard to individuals, and to come down from vague abstractions to practical facts, is it intended that any man, at his pleasure, can go to any other man who occupies land and demand that it be given up to him? This is a method which would speedily end in

"The good old rule, the simple plan,
That they should take who have the power,
And they should keep who can."

It will probably be said: This is not what we mean, but that each State shall continue to own its land, and not part with the freehold of it. Even then the question of the *right* of the State will crop up.

What right, for example, have we English-speaking people to this portion of Canada? It belonged to France. Did we buy it? No! we took it. But France had no better title than we, for France took it also. It all belonged to the Indians once.

So there may be some curious questions about the right of *States* with regard to land. But putting these aside, and not calling the title of the State in question, the point to be considered is this:—How is the State to divide the land of the country so as to make the best use of it for its inhabitants? The land of this country was once wholly covered by forests, and in its natural state was not worth a dollar. If the State, at this present time, desired to impose a tax upon the land of Canada at its natural value, before labor had been applied to it, such a tax would yield absolutely nothing. How, then, does land acquire any monetary value? I answer, by the application of *Labor and Money*.

The first labor to be applied is that of Surveys. That, of course, is undertaken by the State, and a matter of heavy expenditure it is. The Surveyor-General was once the most important official in the country, next to the Governor. Any one who desires to know what the survey of large tracts of country means, may be referred to the Department of the Interior at Ottawa, or the Crown Lands Department in Toronto or Quebec.

Then there is the making of Roads, the building of Bridges, etc., so as to enable settlers to proceed to occupation.

Supposing the State to do this preliminary work, and to have divided the land into lots, we will further suppose the rule is laid down that the Government will not part with the freehold. That being understood, persons wanting the use or occupation of land now make their appearance. It is the interest of the State that they should have it.

"Will you let me have this lot?" they say to the State.

"Certainly; for so much ground rent per annum," the amount calculated on the expenditure the State has already made. (The land, be it remembered, is still covered with forests.)

But before a settler can get anything out of land he must put both money and labor into it.

"How long, then, can I have it—for five years, ten years, twenty years?"

No man, in his senses, would make a bargain for less than twenty-five years, for it will take the greater part of that time to make a decent farm out of it; and when it is made, the settler will certainly desire some recompense for the severe toil of clearing.

"But can I depend upon *sure possession*?" the settler asks. "What is to hinder another man coming along next year and taking the land from me?"

Quiet possession must be assured, or no man would put money and labor into it. This point concluded, the settler now enters upon his land, and begins the arduous labor of clearing with heart and confidence. He has secure possession. That land is his for the next twenty-five years at any rate. The people may want it, but they can no more get it than if it was his freehold.

But the settler does not go as far as this without asking another question.

"At the end of twenty-five years, what then? Am I to give up possession of this farm to the State, with all the improvements I have made; the cleared ground, the house, barns, orchards and fences?"

"By no means," says the State. "We don't want to rob you of the fruit of your labor. If we take the farm from you we will pay for improvements, or renew your lease."

Now, it is evident that in an average of cases, if a fair bargain is made, the man will get as much for his improvements as if he was a freeholder. The interest of the State in the land is a trifle compared with his own, for the cost of surveying and road-making, large as that is, is a mere trifle compared with the cost of clearing, stubbing, fencing, planting and building. The farm is practically worth what he has done to it, and no more.

But why should the State take the farm at all?

What the State wants is Revenue, *Taxes*. It would take an enormous sum of money to pay for all improvements on all the farms in the country. The State could never borrow money enough; and it would undoubtedly say to the settler:—"Take another lease, and continue to make your farm a source of food for the people, and revenue to the State."

But then it is perfectly evident that the land is locked up. It is taken away from the people, no one of the people can lease it, the State has guaranteed possession, and the land is as much out of their reach as if the occupier had a freehold.

At the end of another twenty-five years the same thing will be sure to take place, and the final result must ensue, that the State will grant leases which are in effect perpetual.

This, or something to this effect, is the only conceivable way by which the State could at once maintain a freehold in the land, and at the same time ensure its development, cultivation, and improvement for the supply of the wants of the people.

All the cultivated land in the Dominion has passed through this process of reclamation, clearing, and gradual improvement, and I maintain that both the Government and the people are just as well off by having given deeds of the *freehold* as if they had given leases, on any terms which a rational man would accept.

Land in Towns and Cities is in some respects different from land in the country. The Jewish law of the land returning to the family in fifty years did not apply to land in towns. *Lev. xxv., 29-30.*

But after all, many of the same primary considerations are applicable.

The State at first owns all the land in the country. Suppose it was to apply the theory of not parting with the freehold to the land on which a town is built.

Here is a plot of land where people settle thickly round a water-power or some suitability, and the place becomes a centre of attraction.

The State surveys the ground, and divides it into town lots.

Now then come the applicants. Some locations are more desirable than others, and therefore more persons want them. The want leads to willingness to pay a premium for lots considered to be the most suitable, and the State would be bound in the interest of the people to lease to the highest bidder, just as it leases the forests now under the name of Limits. But no sane man would build on any lot unless he has assured possession of it for a long term, forty or fifty years at least, with provision for renewal of the lease.

Each of these lots is then tied up from the body of the people in the very nature of things.

This is on the supposition that the lots leased by the State are wanted for some immediate purpose or building or ornament.

But parties will be willing to lease *before* they are ready to build, or with the idea of holding till some others can build. Thus they become lessees of vacant lots.

But, in leasing and paying taxes, they have to take the risk of losing money as well as making money.

It is a great delusion to suppose that all lands, in all towns, go on increasing in value; a delusion that deceived so great a thinker as Stuart Mill. Had he lived till our own time he would have been undeceived. For experience has contradicted it. Toronto, in my recollection, has been in such a state of depression that you could not give vacant lots away; and lots even in good localities, that had been bought at high prices.

Hundreds of people have been impoverished and ruined by continued depreciation in the value of vacant lots, for which, year after year, they had paid taxes out of their labor, otherwise applied.

So, if a man takes a lease of vacant property, it is perfectly reasonable that he should have quiet possession and a long lease; and that he take the profit, if profit there be, and the loss, if there be a loss.

But let us suppose there has been an increase in the value of all leases, and that this man comes to the end of his term; on what principle of equity does the general government come in for a share of the increased value, or claim the whole of it?

Why should the people of Halifax and Vancouver share in the increased value of leases in Montreal?

Why should even the people of this Province of Quebec, say the people of Gaspé and of the Eastern Townships, share in the increase?

Why should even the inhabitants of the city? For the city never owned the land at all.

These are practical and pertinent questions.

In my humble judgment, the system of dealing with city property by leaseholders, in the end, and in a long course of years, must needs work out (broadly speaking) the same results—so far as the public is concerned—as the present system of selling freeholds. *But in both cases the land is equally locked up from the general use of the people.*

It is confessedly a more complicated subject than the dealing with land in country districts, but I cannot see that any equitable dealing with land in cities on different principles from those which now prevail (which I am convinced are equitable) could be of any appreciable benefit to the individual workman.

The truth is, that Henry George's theory of land is unworkable.

This, I have no doubt, is the reason why, though his theories have been before the people of the United States for many years, no attempt has been made to embody them in legislation, which is the only way to give them effect. His ideas are those of theorists who have had no practical acquaintance with the subject. I ven-

ture to say, they are not shared in by any man who has ever had experience in dealing with land, either as settler, leaseholder, buyer, seller, cultivator, or owner.

DO WORKMEN GET THE FRUIT OF THEIR LABOR?

Workmen sometimes think they do not get enough of the proceeds of their work, and consider they would do far better if all work were done co-operatively.

Enquiry of the facts would, however, show, in many instances, that workmen have got far more than any share that would have come to them had they undertaken the work co-operatively as a partnership.

Let me give an example:—Suppose the army of laborers and artisans who built the Grand Trunk Railway and its branches, including the men who made the iron in England, had taken a contract to do it; on the condition that they should get for the road all that was in it, and be paid the market value of the road when it was complete.

That would be fair, would it not? What would have been the result?

Just this: That they would have got many millions of dollars less than they *did* get, and that most of them would have been ruined for life!

We could multiply this example by scores on this continent, for the same might be said, in due proportion, of more than half the railways which have been built.

That is a practical example on a very large scale. I will give you a small one.

A person in this city whom I know, spent about \$6,000—nearly all paid out in wages—in making alterations in the house he lived in. He thought these were improvements of value, or they would not have been made.

By-and-bye he sold the house; he sold it in the open market for as much as he could get for it.

The result was that every dollar of this \$6,000 was thrown away; he got for his house just what he paid originally, before the improvements were made.

Now, had these workmen done the work co-operatively, and agreed to be paid by results, they would have been paid nothing. Their work, when put to a practical test, was found not worth a dollar.

I can point to large factories in this country that have been worked for years—for six, eight, or ten—purely for the benefit of the operators, the proprietors never getting a dollar of return.

If the workmen had worked co-operatively and been paid according to results, they would have been paid certainly not more than three-quarters of what they received during all these years.

The extra quarter represents *overpayment*, on co-operative principles.

But if any workmen desire to work on co-operative lines, it is perfectly open to them to do so.

Let a few workmen combine, put together their savings, start a business, open a shop, accept a contract, and take the risk of results. This is the way in which nearly all the great manufacturing concerns now amongst us started, and the way is just as open as ever.

But in that case they run their chance of losses as well as of profits. For profit and loss go together.

The same law which inviolably protects the workmen's wages when he works for another, will make him responsible to the creditors of a concern in which he has shared profits in case the concern goes wrong.

All this goes to show, that the system under which men who labor receive a certain sum week by week, or month by month, which sum is made secure to them, no matter what the result of their work may be, is the most suitable to the laborer's circumstances, and the most beneficial.

AN EIGHT HOURS DAY ENFORCED BY ACT OF PARLIAMENT.

With regard to the enforced limitation, by Act of Parliament, of labor to Eight Hours of the day, there are many considerations to be taken into account.

For example:—Eight Hours is a hard day's work in some lines of labor, and a very light day's work in others. Moreover, all the work done in the world is to supply the *wants* of the world; which wants, from day to day and from season to season, vary considerably.

All work, therefore, has to be prosecuted with regard to exigencies, opportunities, and circumstances.

There is a fundamental difference between out-door work and in-door work.

All out-door work has to be regulated by length or shortness of days; short days in winter, long days in summer, as well as by such circumstances as cold and heat, wet weather and dry.

We cannot get rid of this, nor can we get rid of such contingencies as rains, storms, fires and floods; the freezing up of harbors and rivers in winter, and the opening of navigation in spring, and rush of business consequent thereon.

We cannot have an enforced Eight Hour day, applicable to all seasons, for those who work on the land

or for the great army of Lumberers, or Sailors, or Fishermen; or for Builders of Railways and other public works in the open air; in fact, for the vast majority of those who work in a country like Canada.

Even with regard to those who work in shops, and can work in winter as well as in summer, the following considerations are pertinent:

- (1) It is useless to expect to get ten hours' wages for eight hours' work.
- (2) Leisure, unless accompanied by power of self-control, and good moral stamina, as a matter of fact, is a time of temptation, and becomes to very many the occasion of drunkenness and licentiousness.
- (3) Even in-door work must be subject to the changing wants of mankind.

We cannot change times and season, nor control the operations of nature. There must be a heavy pressure at one time, and correspondingly light pressure at another.

It was lately said by a workman in this city, that he had once worked seventy hours at a stretch. There was some very urgent necessity for this, no doubt, or he would not have been required to do it.

The last time I crossed the Atlantic we were in a fog for four consecutive days, during the whole of which time the Captain scarcely ever left the bridge.

Bankers are supposed generally to have short hours. In many cases this is true, in others it is a delusion. When I came to Montreal, my hours were from nine o'clock in the morning till eleven o'clock at night, and that for months together. The work could not possibly have been done without it. The necessities of the case called for it.

Numbers of other cases might be cited, showing that hard and fast rules must bend and give way to the laws of nature, and the exigencies of the world we live in.

Nothing I am now saying, however, would prevent men from endeavoring, by lawful and proper methods, to get higher remuneration for their work, when they think they ought to have it, all with due regard to the rights of other workmen, as well as of employers.

But I say this, that higher wages, unless accompanied by moral stamina, have often proved a curse rather than a blessing. This is not a fancy, or opinion, or theory, but a fact of experience.



THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE.

This important department attends to the practical details of every measure of Government, and gives effect to its policy. It is administered by Hon. Geo. Foster, whose extensive knowledge of the various industries of the country, together with his natural aptitude for dealing with facts and figures, render him peculiarly fitted for the great responsibility attaching to his office. The vast importance of his position can scarcely be over-estimated. Everything connected with public expenses or financial transactions is submitted to him. Every question of tariff is laid before him, considered and adjudged by him, before he lays it before the Council, and when it is next in course, laid before the Legislative Assembly, it is in the form of a Government proposition. The decisions of the Council are greatly influenced by the views and decisions of the Minister of Finance, and that the questions that come before him are often most intricate and difficult will readily be conceived. A blunder would be irremediable and attended with the gravest consequences. And how easily an error, apparently slight, might be committed must be manifest to all. The appointment of the Minister of Finance demands, on the part of the Premier of the Dominion, a sound discretion and greatest care.

In the Hon. Geo. Foster it has always been felt that this Department has an efficient head. The Public Accounts for the fiscal year ended June 30th, 1895, offer powerful testimony to the ability, thoroughness, and painstaking accuracy with which the Department of Finance is administered.

Many interesting details are afforded by the published Report, and without exception these reflect credit upon the ability with which the financial affairs of the Dominion are managed and regulated. An economy has marked the management of the Department which must be in great measure due to the efficiency of its officers. The report of Deputy Minister Courtney ascribes it in a lesser degree also to "the working out of the principles of the Superannuation Act."

This reference of the Deputy Minister's is to the recent Act of Parliament, in the operations of which abatements are deducted for superannuation purposes from the salaries of past members of the Public Service, who, from death, resignation, or other causes, were never placed upon the retired list, and also from the salaries of those now in the service, who, through good health, or not being sufficiently aged, have not as yet been retired.

The Superannuation Act came into force in 1870.

The Public Accounts for the year ending June, 1895, as above stated, shows the deficit to be \$4,153,875, which, although large, is nearly half a million less than was anticipated. The expenditure on account of Consolidated Fund amounted to \$38,132,005 and the receipts to \$33,978,129.

The net debt at the close of the fiscal year was \$253,074,927, an increase of \$6,891,897, during the year. This increase is accounted for as follows:—

Expended on Public Works, Capital.....	\$ 102,393
" Railways and Canals, Capital.....	2,829,088
" Dominion Lands, Capital.....	99,842
" Railway Subsidies, Capital.....	1,310,549
Charges of Management, Loans of 1892 and 1894.....	399,199
Excess of Expenditure over Receipts, Consolidated Fund.....	4,153,876
Consolidated Fund, Transfers.....	95
	<hr/>
	\$8,895,012
Less—Sinking Fund Investments.....	\$2,002,311
Refunding Expenses in connection with North-West Rebellion.....	833
	<hr/>
	2,003,144
	<hr/>
	\$6,892,868

The total cost of the management of the Department, including the salary of the Minister of Finance was \$66,824.

By no means the least interesting portion of the Report is that dealing with the arbitration between the provinces of the Dominion. The Report was the official record of what had been done in this regard during the year. It is instructive to note that this important and responsible work falls within the domain of the Finance Minister, and that the progress made is reported by him. To quote from the Report :—

"The arbitrators on the disputed transactions between the Dominion and the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec have had several meetings, and have given decision on various points. The first and most important was that with respect to the increased annuities payable to the Indians on the north shores of Lakes Huron and Superior. In this the main contention of the Dominion was sustained by the arbitrators, but an appeal from their award was taken to the Supreme Court of Canada by the Provincial authorities. It is understood that by the decision of that Court, given a few days ago, the award of the arbitrators has been changed, and that the Province of Quebec has been made liable for the payment of its proportion of the augmented annuities since confederation, which by the award was to be charged solely to Ontario, only affecting the position of the Dominion to this extent. * * * A question arose as to whether or not the validity of all entries made in the Province of Canada Debt Account up to June 30th, 1872, was established by the operation of the Dominion Act of 1873, 36 Vict., Cap. 30, or whether these entries were examinable on their merits. It was decided by the Board that each and every of the items found in the Province of Canada Account, as shown in the statement of accounts prepared for the arbitration, was examinable on its merits, and was not finally established by the operation of the above Act, or otherwise. * * * There are a number of subjects in dispute that have not yet been brought before the arbitrators, but it is hoped these will be reached during the coming year."

As regards the expenditure on Capital Account, the following figures are given :—

Canadian Pacific Railway * * *	\$ 49,210
Intercolonial Railway	327,034
Digby and Annapolis Railway	570
Lachine Canal	189,944
St. Lawrence River and Canals	1,737,592
St. Peter's Canal	868
Sault Ste. Marie Canal	466,151
Trent River Navigation	53,910
Welland Canal	3,809
Port Arthur and Kaministiquia River	13,312
Improvement of the St. Lawrence	89,081
Dominion Lands	99,843

\$3,031,324

That these figures represent a most wise and well-considered expenditure, the hearty confidence reposed in the Minister of Finance by the public, abundantly attests. That Hon. G. E. Foster is the greatest financier in the Dominion to-day, all will allow. He is a supporter of the National Policy, and he claims for this system that it is broader than the mere question of tariff. He has publicly asserted that the National Policy means the union into one compact of the whole of the British people who live on the northern half of the American continent. He claims that this Policy means inter-communication between the provinces, in the formation and extension of great lines of inter-communication like the Canadian Pacific Railway, and also the promotion of water and rail communication from one part of the country to another. A National Policy thus interpreted by the Minister of Finance is full of promise to the country which, fulfilled, shall be a glorious future. It is a favored land in which the development of its industrial life is made the grand aim of the career of the man who occupies this most responsible position.

Canadian progress in trade and commerce during recent years has been unexcelled among the nations of the world. The times have been severe, but Canada has stood, as has been remarked by a London journal, like a giant throughout the period of depression through which the whole commercial world has passed. How greatly this comparative prosperity is due to the excellent working of the Department of Finance can easily be credited.

The Report already referred to shows that the amount of Dominion notes in circulation on June 30th, 1895, was \$19,520,233.

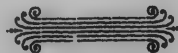
In the cash transactions of the Savings Banks, the withdrawals, \$11,280,040, exceeded the deposits, \$11,224,195, by \$55,845; there was added, however, to the various accounts accrued interest to the extent of \$1,470,332. On June 30th, the total balance at the credit of the depositors was \$44,450,498, or an increase of \$1,414,486 over the balance held at the same time in the preceding year.

During the year there were paid, on account by subsidies, to the under-mentioned railways, the following sums, aggregating \$1,310,549:

Atlantic and Northwestern Railway	\$186,600
Canada Eastern Railway	30,400
Canadian Pacific Railway	28,000
Drummond County Railway	92,096
Dominion Coal Company's Railway	32,000
Irondale, Bancroft, and Ottawa Railway	32,000
Grand Trunk, Georgian Bay, and Lake Erie Railway	39,744
Great Northern Railway	32,000
Lake Temiscamingue Colonization Railway	35,200
Lotbiniere and Megantic Railway	38,400
Montford Colonization Railway	35,200
Nakusp and Slocan Railway	117,760
Ottawa, Arnprior, and Parry Sound Railway	249,280
Parry Sound Colonization Railway	68,780
Philipaburg Junction Railway and Quarry Company	2,912
Quebec, Montmorency, and Charlevoix Railway	30,400
Shuswap and Okanagan Railway	300
United Counties Railway	42,728
Pontiac and Pacific Junction Railway	18,750

\$1,310,549

Figures are dry reading, but the tables and facts given in the financial statement, from which we have taken those contained in this article, are eloquent of the ability, thoroughness, and good statesmanship displayed in the management and working of the Department of Finance in the Dominion Government.



HON. G. E. FOSTER.

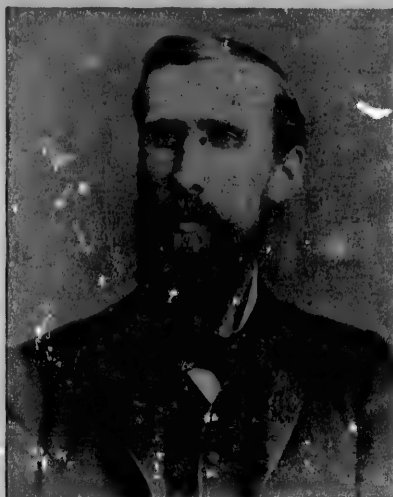
THE Hon. George Eulas Foster, Minister of Finance of the Dominion of Canada, was born in Carleton County, New Brunswick, September 3rd, 1847. His father came of United Empire Loyalist stock, while his mother was of German descent. Their son, who was destined to become so distinguished a statesman, received his early education in the public schools of his native province, and in September, 1865, entered the University of New Brunswick. Here his career was singularly brilliant, and he was the winner of the King's County Scholarship, taking also in his first year the Douglas gold medal for an English essay, as well as the first prize for natural science. His strongest points at college were mathematics and classics, whilst he showed a decided taste also for English literature and history. He graduated in 1868, taking the degree of B.A., and taught for a short while the Grammar school at Grand Falls, N.B. He became subsequently a teacher in the Baptist Seminary at Fredericton, and principal of an educational institution at Fredericton Junction, remaining in each position for one year. In 1870, he became principal of the Ladies' High School at Fredericton, and in the following year was appointed professor of classics and history in the University of New Brunswick. He spent the years 1872-73 in Edinburgh, and in Heidelberg, Germany, prosecuting his studies, taking at Edinburgh the second and two other prizes. Upon his return to his native land, he pursued the duties of his chair in the position, however, in 1879. Acadia College, Nova Scotia, conferred upon him the degree of D.C.L. in 1885 and in 1894 the University of New Brunswick conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D.

He had from his earliest years found time to devote himself with ardour and untiring energy to the cause of temperance. He filled the office of Grand Patriarch in the Grand Division of the Sons of Temperance of New Brunswick, Templar of the British National Chief of the United Vice-President and President of the Dominion Alliance of four years, of the International Association. He was widely known as a lecturer upon temperance topics, and it was upon entering the fullest confidence in the candidate for election to

He won the field, but his election was voided. He was, however, again elected in November of the same year, and has ever since continued to represent that constituency. On December, 10th, 1885, he was sworn in a Member of the Privy Council, and invested with the Portfolio of Marine and Fisheries.

In 1888, Hon. Mr. Foster visited Washington, in connection with the negotiations between Great Britain and the United States, concerning the Canadian Deep Sea Fisheries on the Atlantic Coast. In virtue of his office, the preparation of the Canadian side of the case at this time devolved upon him. The negotiations resulted in the Bayard-Chamberlain Treaty, which the U. S. Senate afterwards rejected. In 1889 Mr. Foster was called to undertake the administration of the Department of Finance of which he is still the Minister. In 1890, Mr. Foster visited the British West Indies in reference to closer trade relations between them and Canada. In November 1894, he went to London and negotiated a Canadian loan at three per cent., the most favourable terms which any large British Colony has yet made on the London market.

He favours a civil service system which shall, as nearly as possible, conform to the system in operation in Great Britain. He advocates a moderate protective tariff, and a wise economy in the administration of the finances of the country. He is one of the finest public speakers in the country and is distinguished for force and clearness of statement, fluency and adherence to logic. A literary grace pervades his style which, along with a singularly earnest manner, renders him a most eloquent and persuasive orator.



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THOMAS MAYNE DALY, Q.C., M.P.

Few names have been better known or more honoured throughout Western Ontario than that of Daly. The first of the race to settle in the town of Stratford was Lieut.-Col. Daly, who thither came in 1832, and who was for many years agent of the Canada Company, and also of the Bank of Upper Canada in Stratford. He was a member of the first council of the District of Huron, and he was also first Mayor of Stratford, in 1858. His life was very intimately connected with the history of old "Huron District," which comprised what are now the counties of Huron, Perth and Bruce. He was the grandfather of the subject of this sketch. His son, Thomas M. Daly, no less a distinguished and useful man, was the first representative sent to the Legislative Assembly of Canada from the County of Perth, after its organization as a separate county in 1854. He retired from public life in 1878, when his son, named like himself, Thomas Mayne, was twenty-six years of age, having been born in Stratford, August 16, 1852.

He received his education at the Upper Canada College in Toronto, and adopting Law as a profession, was admitted to the Ontario Bar in Michaelmas term, 1876.

He began practice in his native town in 1877, and continued until 1881, when he removed to Manitoba, and took up his residence in Brandon. There he has remained since, and is the senior member of the firm of Daly & Caldwell, barristers, etc. He was ap-

Mr. Daly was among the first, true to the traditions of a public spirit into every-thing of the community. He was at the first elections in Brandon in December of 1881, and was re-elected in 1884. The public offices he has held have been connected with each have conscientiously discharged. He was a member of the Protestant Conservative Union of the Liberal-Conservative of Brandon.

He was the first Mayor of Brandon in 1881, and was re-elected in 1884. The public offices he has held have been connected with each have conscientiously discharged. He was a member of the Protestant Conservative Union of the Liberal-Conservative of Brandon.

Although quite young from Ontario, he had already taken an active part in matters of public interest, and had been for several years quarter-master of the 28th Perth Battalion of Militia, retiring in 1881 with the rank of Captain. During the years 1880-81 he held a seat in the town Council of Stratford, and was also most useful as a member of the School Board, of which he subsequently became chairman. He held, also, the office of President of the Young Men's Conservative Association in Stratford. But the extraordinary ability, pluck and energy with which Mr. Daly is possessed was soon recognized, and the people of the prairie province came to the conclusion that his sphere of usefulness should not be confined to the councils of his own province, and, consequently, at the general elections in 1887, Mr. Daly was elected to the House of Commons as representative for Selkirk, Manitoba. He was again returned for the same constituency at the general elections in 1891.

However, Mr. Daly was not destined to remain long a private member of the House of Commons, and the late Sir John Abbott was not slow to recognize in him a man who was possessed of considerable tact, ability, and sound judgment, and consequently Sir John Abbott found a place for him in his Cabinet, and on the 17th of October, 1892, Mr. Daly was sworn in as Minister of the Interior and Superintendent of Indian Affairs, and he has held these offices under the successive Governments of Sir John Thompson and Sir Mackenzie Bowell.

Mr. Daly is, in politics, a Liberal-Conservative.

He was married, in 1879, to Margaret Annabella, daughter of P. R. Jarvis, Esq., of Stratford.



in Brandon, in that remained since, and is the of Daly & Caldwell, barrister, appointed a Q.C. in 1890.

the pioneer settlers of that ing town, and from the of his family, entered with thing that concerned the He was the returning official in the County of the same year.

of Brandon, being elected in 1884. The public offices numerous, but all the duties been most faithfully and He was Chairman of the of Manitoba, 1884. He was Society of Manitoba, and a Board of Education of that dent of the first Liberal-Manitoba, and President of Association of the County

at the time of his removal from Ontario, he had already taken an active part in matters of public interest, and had been for several years quarter-master of the 28th Perth Battalion of Militia, retiring in 1881 with the rank of Captain. During the years 1880-81 he held a seat in the town Council of Stratford, and was also most useful as a member of the School Board, of which he subsequently became chairman. He held, also, the office of President of the Young Men's Conservative Association in Stratford. But the extraordinary ability, pluck and energy with which Mr. Daly is possessed was soon recognized, and the people of the prairie province came to the conclusion that his sphere of usefulness should not be confined to the councils of his own province, and, consequently, at the general elections in 1887, Mr. Daly was elected to the House of Commons as representative for Selkirk, Manitoba. He was again returned for the same constituency at the general elections in 1891.

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J. G. H. BERGERON, M.P.

JOSEPH GÉDÉON HORACE BERGERON, the popular representative of Beauharnois in the Dominion Parliament, is one of the best known of the younger members of the Canadian Legislature. He is a son of the late J. R. Bergeron, Esq., of Rigaud, P.Q., and was born October 13, 1854. He received his earlier education in St. Mary's College, Montreal, subsequently entering McGill University, whence he graduated in 1877 with the degree of Bachelor of Canadian Law. In the same year he was called to the Bar of the Province of Quebec. Previous to this he had, at the Military School in Montreal, taken a second-class certificate, and joined a volunteer cavalry troop. He had also, during his student days, become an active member of St. Jean Baptiste Society. The immense fund of energy, which in later years was to be turned to so good account in the service of his country, was thus evincing its latent strength. And these early indications were prophetic of the patriotic fervor which was, in the political arena, to characterize his course. His youth was full of brilliant promise, which his maturer years have not belied.

His first appearance in public life was in 1879, when he was elected by a majority of thirteen. In 1882 he was re-elected by acclamation.

To enjoy so completely, career, the confidence of his every public man. It augurs the rising young politician, interest with which he was esteemed felt for him by his that in 1887, Mr. Bergeron, in the political crisis of the the Government upon this a candidate for election, and opposed by a Government notwithstanding, also, that as a Conservative strong-umphed by a majority of two

In the elections of 1891 sure himself with a formidable Seers, who, by the way, had like himself, Mr. Seers was in this instance the latter Liberal party, and great was geron was elected with a

During the session of the motion in response to He was then only twenty-he was elected Deputy-Speaker of the House of Commons, a signal proof of his popularity.

Popular esteem is not often accorded unwisely. The applause of his fellows attests a man's worth, and in the case of Mr. Bergeron it has been the meed of his deserts. Affable, courteous, possessed of great tact and a practical judgment, he is eminently fitted for the high position he has been called to occupy, and he has never failed to justify the confidence reposed in him.

As a lawyer Mr. Bergeron has been eminently successful. He is a member of the well-known firm of Archambault, Lynch, Bergeron, and Mignault, Montreal.

Mr. Bergeron has always had the courage of his views, and has contrived to do a good deal in the way of influencing public opinion. His life has been active and eminently useful, and he has made for himself a name which must endure. Who so truly lives as the man who consecrates to the service of his countrymen those talents which render him a valuable counsellor in the great affairs of State?

Mr. Bergeron possesses a critical and inquiring turn of mind which impels him to question whatever is not proved, and this, with his personal independence, constitute him a public man of highest order, whose usefulness in his day and generation will only be more fully appreciated with the lapse of years.

Instances are rare of public men circumstanced in some respects as the subject of our sketch, who entering so early into the political arena, is enabled to devote his whole life to his country, giving to the cause of right and good government both the energy of youth and the wisdom and sagacity of maturer age.



at the commencement of his constituents, is not given to gured well for the future of and deepened the widening regarded. To illustrate the supporters, we may note having taken an active part North-West, and opposing question, came forward as notwithstanding that he was candidate, Mr. Pelletier,—the division was looked upon hold, Mr. Bergeron tri-hundred and two votes.

Mr. Bergeron had to meable adversary, Mr. L. A. been his first opponent. a Liberal-Conservative, but had the support of the whole the victory when Mr. Ber-majority of three hundred. 1882 Mr. Bergeron presented the Speech from the Throne. seven years of age. In 1890

S. LACHAPELLE, M.D., M.P.

THERE was born, 1850, at St. Remi, county of Napierville, in the Province of Quebec, one who was destined to become later one of the foremost men of his place and time. Dr. Severin Lachapelle attained to eminence both in the profession of his choice, and in the political arena, to which he was called by countrymen who recognized in him the ability and disinterestedness of the useful public man.

At an early age he entered the collegio of Montreal, and was there when, in 1868, the earnest movement among Candian Catholics to send assistance to Pope Pires IX resulted in the enrolment of the Pontifical Zouaves. Young Severin Lachapelle, then only seventeen years of age, of an ardent and generous temperament, was one of the first to give in his name, and was in the first detachment, which embarked for Rome.

During his stay in the Eternal City he distinguished himself by many acts of intrepidity, proving himself in various emergencies to be possessed of a soldier's best characteristics—courage, determination, good humor, and a loyal devotion to the cause he espoused.

After two years of service, he returned to Montreal, and in 1870 took up the study of medicine at the Montreal School of Medicine and surgery. In 1874 he commenced professional life at St. Constant, and in a very short time built up a large practice which, however, in two years time, he abandoned in order to be-
 take himself to a yet busier field.

He removed to Montreal, choosing St. Henri as his place of residence. soon after opened in Montreal, Doctor Lachapelle being appointed one of its professors, and has ever since lectured within its walls in Hygiene, and the diseases of children.

It is seldom, however, for political life, is left to and unostentatious life, the important county of represent their interests in Dr. Lachapelle is a Con- devotion to his party has hearted. He has ever been service of the public, and has stood his party in good casion.

Dr. Lachapelle lives practice is immense, not- interruptions which result His devotion to his profes-

to that part of it—the diseases of children—which is his specialty, is almost unequalled. Humane, learned, untiring, he is the model physician, and, as might be expected, enjoys to an unusual degree the hearty affection and gratitude of his numerous *clientele*.

He is the author of many books on Hygiene. "La Sante pour Tous" (Health for All), and the "Manuel d'Hygiene de la Province de Quebec" (Manual of Hygiene of the Province of Quebec), are in universal use in educational institutions, by order of the Council of Hygiene of this Province.

In 1874 he married Elise Demers, daughter of Louis Demers, Esq., of Montreal, and has to-day three surviving children.

The brilliant success which has attended the career of Dr. Lachapelle is due entirely to his own exertions. Patient and painstaking, as well as ardent and keen, he has served his fellows in no half-hearted way, displaying in the cause of the truest philanthropy a unique energy, activity and ability, which have, in the acclaim of his countrymen, assuredly had their reward.

His position is in some respects unique. Known and endeared to many as the successful and beloved physician, his ministrations to suffering humanity seem alone to suffice to render his life one of signal usefulness, and we have to remind ourselves that this patient and skilled practitioner is also the honored politician, whose wide-spread and telling influence are publicly recognized. The man who thus plays a varied part is richly gifted by nature.



real, choosing St. Henri as Laval University being real, Doctor Lachapelle professors, and has ever walls in Hygiene, and the

that a man eminently fitted enjoy the delights of a quiet and, in 1892, the voters of Aochelaga chose him to the Dominion Legislature. servative in politics, and his been steadfast and whole- prodigal of his time in the the power of his eloquent stead on more than one oc-

still at St. Henri; his withstanding the numerous from his public position. sion, and more particularly

DEPARTMENT OF MILITIA AND DEFENCE.

In some very important respects the military arrangements of the Dominion of Canada differ from those which prevail in the other self-governing colonies. Before the confederation of Canada and the amalgamation of it with the North-Western Provinces and British Columbia, the Imperial Government bore the burden of providing both for defence and for the maintenance of order. The principal Canadian towns were garrisoned by Imperial troops. As many as 25,000 Imperial troops were maintained in British North America.

The first rising of Louis Riel was put down by English riflemen. English artillerymen manned the guns of Quebec. At a time when communication with Vancouver had to be carried on round Cape Horn, the English War Office shared with the Admiralty the responsibility of defending the country.

The organization of the Militia of Canada, as at present constituted, dates back to Confederation. Although theoretically consisting of only two branches—the Active Militia and the Reserve—the system is more easily understood if the force is considered as consisting of three divisions—the permanently embodied troops or “regulars,” the organized corps of Volunteer Militia, and the unorganized reserve.

When Sir George Cartier introduced the Act in Parliament for establishing a Militia, he told the House that the chief difficulty consisted in drilling up quickly and cheaply a system which, in other countries, has been of slow and costly growth. Everything had to be done; not only soldiers had to be found, but officers, arms, and clothing. The proposal was, however, received with the utmost enthusiasm. Two years later two Batteries were established—one at Quebec, and one at Kingston—for the purpose of training soldiers in the European arts of war. At first, officers of the Royal troops were in command, but now the places are efficiently filled by Canadians.

The Department is at present administered by the Hon. Arthur Rupert Dickey, Q.C., M.P., who, in March, 1895, exchanged the office of Secretary of State for his present portfolio as Minister of Militia and Defence.

Hon. A. R. Dickey is the son of Senator Dickey, and was born at Amherst, N.S., in 1854. He was first returned to Parliament as member for Cumberland in 1888, and has since represented that constituency.

The principal officers of the Department are as follows:—

Minister—Hon. A. R. Dickey, Q.C., M.P.

Deputy—Colonel C. E. Panet.

Director of Stores—Lt.-Col. J. Macpherson.

Accountant—C. Herbert O'Meara.

Chief Clerk—B. Sulté.

Secretary—Capt. A. Benoit.

First-class Clerks—F. X. Lambert, W. H. Ammond, E. B. Holt, Lt.-Col. D. A. Macdonald, Lt.-Col. Bacon, and T. C. Larose.

Architect—F. W. White, Acting.

Private Secretary to Minister—Lawrence J. Burpee.

The Militia Act provides that the Queen may, for the purpose of providing for the care and protection of forts, magazines, warlike stores, and such like service, and for the purpose of securing the establishment of schools for military instruction, raise and maintain, in addition to the ordinary Active Militia force, one troop of Cavalry, three batteries of Artillery, and not more than five companies of Infantry, the whole strength of which several corps shall not exceed one thousand men, the officers being appointed during pleasure, and the men enlisted for periods of three years' continuous service.

The permanently embodied force at present consists of the Royal Canadian Dragoons, two troops; the Royal Regiment of Canadian Artillery, three batteries; and the Royal Canadian Regiment of Infantry, four

companies. These corps, in addition to performing garrison and other duties, serve as practical schools of military instruction, by affording officers, non-commissioned officers, and men of the ordinary Militia, opportunities of joining for courses of study and training.

The Active Militia are subject to the "Queen's Regulations and Orders for the Army," the Army Act, passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom, and all other laws applicable to Her Majesty's troops in Canada, and not inconsistent with the Militia Act; except that no man shall be subject to any corporal punishment save death or imprisonment for any contravention of such laws.

The establishment of the Permanent and Active Militia of the Dominion, for the year 1895-6, is as follows:—

OFFICERS AND MEN.

Cavalry—Royal Canadian Dragoons.....	132	
Active Militia.....	2115	
		2247
Field Artillery—Royal Canadian Artillery, "A" and "B" Field Batteries.....	173	
Active Militia.....	1345	
		1518
Garrison Artillery—Royal Canadian Artillery, Nos. 1 and 2 Garrison Companies..	171	
Active Militia.....	2462	
		2633
Engineers—Active Militia.....	151	
Infantry—Royal Regiment of Canadian Infantry.....	324	
Active Militia.....	28,962	
		29,437
Total (of all ranks).....		35,835

Since Confederation, the Active Militia of Canada have been called upon for service on the following occasions:—(1) Anticipated Fenian Raid, when 6,000 men were under arms for ten days, April, 1870; (2) Manitoba Contingent, under Col. Wolseley, May, 1870, 750 men, afterwards increased to 1,000; (3) Fenian Raid, May and June, 1870, 13,489 men with 18 guns, were under arms for about ten days; (4) Fenian Raid in Manitoba, October, 1871, 942 men for a few days; (5) In anticipation of disturbance at the interment of M. Guibord in R. C. Cemetery at Montreal, November, 1875, about 1,100 men for a few days; (6) Anticipated Riot at St. John, N.B., 12th July, 1876, 45 men for one day; (7) Grand Trunk Railway Disturbance, December, 1876, 240 men for two or three days; (8) Quebec Riot between ship laborers, June, 1878, 1,300 men for two or three days; (9) Montreal, to maintain peace on 12th July, 1873, 3,000 men for one week; (10) Montreal Riots on Ottawa and Occidental Railway, August, 1878, 239 men for four days; (11) Anticipated Riots, St. Andrew's, N.B., January, 1879, 45 men for two or three days; (12) Quebec Riots, ship laborers, August, 1877, 800 men, three days; (13) Anticipated Riots, Long Point, Norfolk County, Ont., prize fight, January, 1880, 71 men, one day; (14) Port Dover, County Norfolk, one day; (15) Riot at Lingan Mines, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia miners, March, 1883, 100 men, two and a half months; (16) Anticipated Election Riot at Rat-Portage, September, 1883, 49 men, one day; (17) Pontiac and Pacific Railway, near Aylmer, anticipated disturbance between farmers and laborers, July, 1884, 45 men, one day; (18) Disturbance at Tamworth, Ont., railway laborers, October, 1884, 45 men, one day; (19) Anticipated Riot at Winnipeg, November, 1884, 247 men, one day; (20) North-West Rebellion, on actual service, March, 1885, 5,400 men, about three months; besides these 1,140 men were held in readiness under canvas, and 942 in barracks at Toronto, Kingston, Prescott, and Quebec; (21) Visit to Skeena River, B.C. (from Victoria), anticipated Indian troubles, July, 1888, "C" Battery Canadian Artillery, 41 days; (22) Strike of Italian laborers at Hereford Railway, September, 1888, detachment of 58th Battalion and one troop of Cavalry, seven days; (23) Anticipated Riot between Red River Valley and Canadian Pacific Railway Companies, October, 1888, Mounted Infantry School Corps, seven days; (24) Anticipated Riot, consequent on strike at lumber mills, Hull, P.Q., September, 1891, four Companies, two days; (25) Suppression of Smuggling in the Lower St. Lawrence River, July, 1892, detachment of "B" Battery Canadian Artillery, twenty days on revenue cutter "Constance;" (26) Similar errand,

same place, August, 1892, sergeant and four men "B" Battery, until October, 1892; (27) Anticipated Riot of sailors and fishermen at Souris, P.E.I., August, 1893, P.E.I. Battery Garrison Artillery, for a few hours; (28) November, 1895, anticipated riots in Lowe Township, Ottawa County, in connection with the collection of taxes, detachment of Princess Louise Dragoon Guards, Ottawa Field Battery, Governor-General's Foot Guards, 43rd Rifles.

The number of men available for active service in Canada, between the ages of 18 and 45, is about one million. There is, at present, no active marine militia, the naval defences of the country being under the care of the Imperial Government.

The City of Montreal is the headquarters of more Militia Regiments than any other city in the Dominion. It is garrisoned by No. 1 Troop Duke of Connaught's Royal Canadian Hussars, Montreal Field Battery of Artillery, Montreal Brigade Garrison Artillery, 1st Battalion Prince of Wales' Regiment, 3rd Battalion Victoria Rifles, 5th Royal Scots of Canada, 6th Fusiliers, 65th Battalion Mount Royal Rifles, and 85th Battalion of Infantry.

The following table will be found at once interesting and convenient :—

LIST OF ACTIVE MILITIA CORPS BY ARMS—NUMERICALLY AND ALPHABETICALLY.

CORPS.	Military District.	Province.	CORPS.	Military District.	Province.
CAVALRY.			GARRISON ARTILLERY.—(Cont'd.)		
Royal Canadian Dragoons,			Levis, No. 1.....	7	Que.
A Troop.....	2	Ont.	do., No. 2.....	7	"
B do.....	10	Man.	Mahone Bay.....	9	N.S.
Gov.-Gen. Body Guard.....	2	Ont.	Montreal Brigade.....	5	Que.
1st Hussars.....	1	"	New Brunswick Brigade.....	8	N.B.
2nd Dragoons.....	2	"	Pictou.....	9	N.S.
3rd do.....	3	"	Prince Edward Island Brigade.....	8	P.E.I.
4th Hussars.....	3	"	Quebec, No. 1.....	7	Que.
5th Dragoons.....	6	Que.	do., No. 2.....	7	"
6th Hussars.....	5	"	Yarmouth.....	9	N.S.
8th do.....	8	N.B.			
King's Troop.....	9	N.S.	ENGINEERS.		
Princess Louise Dragoon Guards.....	4	"	Brighton Company.....	8	N.B.
Queen's Own Canadian Hussars.....	7	Que.	Charlottetown Company.....	8	P.E.I.
Winnipeg Troop.....	10	Man.			
FIELD ARTILLERY.			INFANTRY AND RIFLES.		
1st Brigade.....	1	Ont.	Royal Canadian Regiment Infantry.....	—	—
Durham.....	3	"	Gov.-Gen. Foot Guards.....	4	Que.
Gananoque.....	4	"	1st Batt.....	5	Ont.
Hamilton.....	2	"	2nd do.....	2	Que.
Kingston.....	3	"	3rd do.....	5	"
London.....	1	"	5th do.....	5	"
Montreal.....	5	Que.	6th do.....	5	"
Newcastle.....	8	N.B.	7th do.....	1	Ont.
Ottawa.....	4	Ont.	8th do.....	7	Que.
Quebec.....	7	Que.	9th do.....	7	"
Sheffield.....	6	"	10th do.....	2	Ont.
Sydney.....	9	N.S.	11th do.....	5	Que.
Toronto.....	2	Ont.	12th do.....	2	Ont.
Welland Canal.....	2	"	13th do.....	2	"
Winnipeg.....	10	Man.	14th do.....	3	"
Woodstock.....	8	N.B.	15th do.....	3	"
GARRISON ARTILLERY.			16th do.....	3	"
1st Regiment Canadian Artillery.....	—	—	17th do.....	7	Que.
British Columbia Brigade.....	11	B.C.	19th do.....	2	Ont.
Cobourg.....	3	Ont.	20th do.....	2	"
Digby.....	9	N.S.	21st do.....	1	"
Halifax, 1st Brigade.....	9	"	22nd do.....	1	"
			23rd do.....	7	Que.

LIST OF ACTIVE MILITIA CORPS BY ARMS—NUMERICALLY AND ALPHABETICALLY.—(Cont'd.)

CORPS.	Military District.	Province.	CORPS.	Military District.	Province.
INFANTRY AND RIFLES.—(Cont'd.)			INFANTRY AND RIFLES.—(Cont'd.)		
25th Batt.	1	Ont.	65th Batt.	5	Que.
26th do.	1	"	66th do.	9	N.S.
27th do.	1	"	67th do.	8	N.B.
28th do.	1	"	68th do.	9	N.S.
29th do.	1	"	69th do.	9	"
30th do.	1	"	70th do.	7	Que.
31st do.	2	"	71st do.	8	N.B.
32nd do.	1	"	72nd do.	9	N.S.
33rd do.	1	"	73rd do.	8	N.B.
34th do.	2	"	74th do.	8	"
35th do.	2	"	75th do.	9	N.S.
36th do.	2	"	76th do.	5	Que.
37th do.	2	"	77th do.	9	Ont.
38th do.	2	"	78th do.	6	Que.
39th do.	2	"	79th do.	6	"
40th do.	3	"	80th do.	7	"
41st do.	4	"	81st do.	8	P.E. I.
42nd do.	4	"	82nd do.	8	Que.
43rd do.	4	"	83rd do.	5	"
44th do.	2	"	84th do.	6	"
45th do.	3	"	85th do.	5	"
46th do.	3	"	86th do.	5	"
47th do.	3	"	87th do.	7	"
48th do.	2	"	88th do.	7	"
49th do.	3	"	89th do.	7	"
50th do.	5	Que.	90th do.	10	Man.
51st do.	5	"	92nd do.	7	Que.
52nd do.	6	"	93rd do.	9	N.S.
53rd do.	6	"	94th do.	9	"
54th do.	6	"	96th do.	2	Ont.
55th do.	7	"			
56th do.	4	Ont.	INDEPENDENT COMPANIES.		
57th do.	3	"	Brandon	10	Man.
58th do.	6	Que.	Gore Bay	2	Ont.
59th do.	4	Ont.	Portage la Prairie	10	Man.
60th do.	6	Que.	Nanaimo	11	B.C.
61st do.	7	"	St. John	8	N.B.
62nd do.	8	N.B.	Sault Ste. Marie	2	Ont.
63rd do.	9	N.S.	Thessalon	2	"
64th do.	5	Que.	Virden	10	Man.

PENSIONS OF 1891-92.

War of 1812 and subsequent service, down to 1839 (Upper Canada)	\$ 2,720.00
Annual grant to surviving veterans, 1812-15	540.00
Active service (Fenian Raids, etc.)	3,147.50
Rebellion, N.W.T., 1885	20,604.45

\$27,011.95

NUMBER OF PENSIONERS, 1891-92.

War of 1812 and subsequent service, down to 1839 (Upper Canada)	32
Surviving veterans, 1812, receiving an annual grant	18
Active service (Fenian Raids, etc.)	20
Rebellion, N.W.T., 1885	104

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THE NORTH-WEST MOUNTED POLICE FORCE.

The Force consists of:—One commissioner, one assistant commissioner, 11 superintendents, 32 inspectors, 100 sergeants, 70 corporals. Total strength, 1,000 men and 850 horses; the latter all raised on Western Ranches, and purchased in the North-West Territories.

PAV.—Constables' pay, 50 cents to 75 cents per diem; corporals, 85 cents per diem; sergeants, \$1 to \$1.50 per diem, with free clothing, quarters and rations. Clerks, artisans and teamsters, receive extra working pay.

Constables engaged for five years, and men of good behavior allowed to re-engage.

All ranks are drilled—both Mounted and Dismounted.

Rank and file injured on duty, or after fifteen years' service, if unfit for further duty, are eligible for pensions. Commissioned ranks receive no pension, but are under the Superannuation Act.

The Mounted Police do all their own teaming, carpentering, painting, smithy and wheelwright work, tin-smithing, etc.

The principal duties performed are patrolling the country, the vicinity of Indian Reserves, and the whole Boundary Line between Ridgeville, east of Emerson, Manitoba, and the Rocky Mountains in particular.

The Boundary patrol extends for 850 miles, police outposts being about forty miles apart; along this boundary they collect Customs dues, grant "Let passes," etc., etc., and enforce a cattle quarantine over the whole distance.

The Police have also charge of the Quarantine at Gretna, Estevan, Wood Mountain, Coutts and Macleod, looking after all cattle received, and delivering them safely to their owners, on expiration of the ninety days' detention required by the Quarantine regulations.

The Mounted Police look after Dominion timber, issue permits and collect dues thereon in Southern Manitoba. Collect all statistics of settlement, cattle, crops, etc., and generally perform all police duties in the Territories, such as serving summonses, arresting criminals, taking charge of gaols and prisoners, arresting and escorting lunatics to asylums, and act as fire guardians for the prevention of prairie fires.

In addition to the foregoing, they patrol the Athabasca River and country North of the Territories, in order to keep liquor out of the unceded Territory, and perform duty in British Columbia and Keewatin, when required.

The deposits by members of the force in the Government Saving Bank amounted to about \$15,000 during the year, and in addition to this, a considerable amount is annually placed in other banks. Some of the men have had from \$600 to \$900 to their credit, when they left the service.

There were 849 criminal and other cases tried during 1892, principally for offences against the liquor laws and the prairie fire ordinance.



DEPARTMENT OF MARINE AND FISHERIES.

THE Department of Marine and Fisheries, controlled by the Dominion Government, was constituted at the time of Confederation. It has, since the date of its formation, been presided over by men of unquestioned ability, and the management of the work has been characterized by complete efficiency and thoroughness in all details. The first Minister who held this office was the Hon. Peter Mitchell, who retained it from 1867 to 1873, and whose ability and zeal left permanent results.

The duties appertaining to the office of Minister of Marine and Fisheries are many and onerous. The magnitude of the Department may be guessed when it is remembered that Canada ranks among the foremost of the nations in the ownership of shipping tonnage. The volume of foreign trade is far greater in Canada than in the United States. The officials in the employ of the Department and engaged in its inside and outside service are counted by thousands. Since the formation of the Department the Fisheries Branch has assumed such proportions that it is scarcely second in importance to that of the Marine, and the employment of a very large staff is necessary. The details are most intricate.

The Fisheries of Canada are the largest in the world, and their value is fully in proportion to their extent. The sea fisheries are practically inexhaustible, the conditions being peculiarly favorable, as the Arctic currents supply the waters with the nutriment which draws the fish in immense shoals about our shores. The ocean about the Maritime Provinces is rich and teeming. Every variety of fish is to be found in these waters, but the fisheries of commercial importance are the seal, lobster, herring, cod, and mackerel. Nor are our fisheries confined to the ocean. Our boundless lakes and immense and numerous streams yield an abundance of fish of great commercial value.

The services under the management of the Department of Marine and Fisheries are defined by Act of Parliament as follows :—

1. Pilots and Pilotage, and Decayed Pilots' Fund.
2. The construction and maintenance of light-houses, light-ships, fog-alarms, buoys and beacons.
3. Ports and harbors, harbor commissioners, harbor masters and port wardens.
4. Piers, wharves, and breakwaters, and the collection of tolls in connection therewith, and the minor repairs on such properties.
5. Steamships and vessels belonging to the Government of Canada engaged in connection with services administered by the Minister of Marine and Fisheries.
6. Sick and distressed seamen, and the establishment, regulation, and maintenance of Marine and Seamen's Hospitals.
7. Signal service.
8. Humane establishments.
9. Lifeboat service and rewards for saving life.
10. Inquiries into causes of shipwrecks and casualties, and the collection of wreck statistics.
11. Inspection of steamboats and examination of engineers, and inquiry into accidents to steamers and the conduct of engineers.
12. Examination of masters and mates.
13. Registration and measurement of shipping, and preparation of returns of registered shipping of Canada.
14. Meteorological and magnetic services.
15. Tidal observations on the coasts of Canada.
16. Climatology of Canada.
17. Inspection of vessels carrying live stock from Canada to Europe.
18. Shipping of steamers, shipping masters and shipping offices.
19. Winter communication between Prince Edward Island and the mainland by steamers and iceboats.
20. Hydrographic surveys.
21. Administration of deck-load law, and the subject of deck and load lines and coasting trade.
22. Removal of wrecks and other obstructions in navigable waters.

23. Sea, coast, and inland fisheries, and the management, regulation, and protection thereof, and everything relating thereto, and the payment of fishing bounties.

In 1889 a Fishery Intelligence Bureau was inaugurated on a small scale. It has since become a necessity to the fishing community. The reports furnished by it, especially those relating to Labrador and the North Shore, are most useful to the large fishing firms.

Provision has been made by statute for the relief of sick and distressed mariners, a duty being levied of two cents per ton register on every vessel arriving in any port in the Provinces of Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia, the money thus collected forming what is known as the "Sick Mariner's Fund." Vessels of 100 tons and less pay the duty once in each calendar year, and vessels over 100 tons three times a year, but vessels not registered in Canada, and employed exclusively in fishing or on a fishing voyage, are exempt.

Under the Department, the Board of Steamboat Inspection, formed of the Chairman and certain Inspectors, grant, after due and satisfactory examination, certificates for steam vessels to run, and for the employment of qualified engineers, and in like manner, the Board of Examiners of Masters and Mates, comprising a Chairman and certain Examiners, give, if a satisfactory examination has been passed, certificates to successful candidates either as masters or mates.

The Harbor Police of Montreal and Quebec is, in a great measure, maintained by the levying of a tax of three cents per ton on all vessels entering these ports. The Harbor Police force was established for the purpose of preserving order among the crowded shipping at these ports, and, as much as possible, preventing crimping.

The following table gives the names of, and other information regarding to, the vessels belonging to the Government of Canada, and engaged in the service of the Department of Marine and Fisheries :—

Names.	Tonnage.	Service and Station.	When and Where Built.
Aberdeen.....	674	Light-house, Halifax.....	1894, Clyde.
Acadia.....	526	Fisheries' Protection, Halifax.....	1880, Chester, U.S.
Bayfield.....	150	Hydro. Survey, Lake Erie.....	1864, Buffalo, U.S.
Constance.....	185	Revenue, Quebec.....	1891, Owen Sound.
Curlew.....	138	Fisheries' Protection, St. John.....	1892, "
Dolphin.....	22	Fisheries' Protection, Georgian Bay.....	1866, Quebec.
Druid.....	239	Light-houses, Quebec.....	1856, Clyde.
Kingfisher.....	Sail.	Fisheries' Protection, Atlantic Coast.....	1892, Shelburne.
Lansdowne.....	680	Light-house, St. John.....	1884, Maccan.
Le Canadienne.....	372	Fisheries' Protection, Quebec.....	1880, Clyde.
Newfield.....	785	Cable and Buoys, Halifax.....	1871, Sunderland.
Petrel.....	168	Fisheries' Protection, Lake Erie.....	1892, Owen Sound.
Quadra.....	573	Light-houses, Victoria, B.C.....	1891, Clyde.
Sir James Douglas.....	163	Laid up, Victoria, B.C.....	1864, British Col.
Stanley.....	914	Winter Service Mails, P. E. Island.....	1888, Clyde.
Vigilant.....	Sail.	Fisheries' Protection, Atlantic Coast.....	Unknown, U.S.

There are in Canada four graving docks. Three of these belong to the Dominion Government, the fourth being owned by a Company. Those belonging to the Government are—(1) The Esquimalt Dock in British Columbia, finished in June, 1886; the Levis Dock in the St. Lawrence River, finished in 1887; and the graving dock at Kingston, Ont., which was finished in November, 1891, and serves the shipping in Lake Ontario and the River St. Lawrence.

The following comparison, relating to light-houses, serves to show the progress made by the Department since Confederation. The figures are from the first Departmental Report in 1868, and that for 1894 :—

Date.	Light Stations.	Light-houses.	Fog Whistles.	Fog Horns.
1868	198	227	2
1894	624	755	22	39

The following is a statement of the number and tonnage of vessels in the Registry Books of the Dominion on the 31st day of December, in the years 1891 and 1894 :—

Provinces.	1891.		1894.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
New Brunswick.....	969	193,193	1,003	136,257
Nova Scotia.....	2,778	461,758	2,710	371,432
Quebec.....	1,404	162,330	1,427	160,590
Ontario.....	1,345	138,914	1,480	148,525
P. E. Island.....	195	23,316	191	19,650
British Columbia.....	246	19,767	336	26,455
Manitoba.....	78	6,197	98	6,715
Total.....	7,015	1,005,475	9,245	1,069,624



A. F. GAULT.

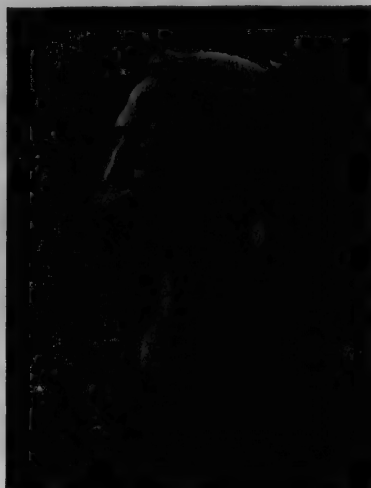
The City of Montreal, from a geographical point of view, is undoubtedly the best situated city in Canada. Being at the head of ocean traffic on the mighty St. Lawrence, necessitates its being a great railway centre, and consequently it is the point from which the commerce of the Dominion is distributed. All these advantages would however avail but very little were it not for its merchants and manufacturers, whose enterprise, energy and pluck have placed the name of Montreal amongst the leading cities of the American continent. Many of her leading citizens have a world-wide reputation for business ability, untiring energy and integrity. Amongst the foremost of these is the subject of this sketch, Mr. A. F. Gault, who came to this country when a boy, from Strabane, Ireland, in which country he was born in 1833. He received his education in the High School, and afterwards entered the employ of a wholesale dry goods firm, where he remained for a number of years.

In 1854, when comparatively a young man, being thoroughly conversant with all the details connected with the wholesale dry goods business, he, in company with the late J. B. Stevenson, started a wholesale establishment, under the name of Gault, Stevenson & Co. After several years the firm dissolved partnership when Mr. Gault was joined by his brother, Robert Leach, the name then being changed to that of Gault Bros. & Co., which name is retained up to the present time.

Mr. Gault has devoted other enterprises besides this, principally the manufacture of cotton, in which he has taken a keen interest, and of which he is probably the largest stockholder in the Dominion at the present time. He has been, and is at the present, the leading spirit in that industry; the rapid strides it has made to which it has grown in Canada is largely due to his zeal and sagacity. Mr. Gault has always taken a lively interest in that industry, and believing that the best interests of the shareholders and the community at large would be furthered by the large number of factories in the Dominion being under one management instead of many, would enable it to compete with the rest of the world, and at the same time give a better and cheaper article to the people. He is President of the Dominion Cotton Mills Company, which has a capital of \$5,000,000.

The mills owned by this Company are the Hochejaga and St. Ann's Mills, Montreal; the Cotton Mills of Magog, Coaticook and Chambly, Que.; the Craven Cotton Company, of Brantford, Ont.; Kingston Cotton Company, Kingston, Ont.; Moncton Cotton Company, Moncton, N.B.; Nova Scotia Cotton Company, Halifax, N.S. Besides this he is President of the Canadian Colored Cotton Mills Company, which has a capital of \$3,000,000; and which owns the mills at Cornwall, Hamilton, Dundas, Merriton and St. Croix.

He is President of the Globe Woollen Manufacturing Company, Campbellford, Ont., and also President of the Montreal Cotton Mills Company, Valleyfield, Que., and of the Montmorenci Cotton Mills Company, Montmorenci, Que. Notwithstanding this great responsibility, his activity and natural business energy enables him to give a portion of his time to several other financial and industrial enterprises. He is connected with various stock companies and banking institutions, a Director of the Bank of Montreal, of the Liverpool and London and Globe Insurance Company and the Manufacturers' Insurance Company. Mr. Gault has always taken a prominent part in educational matters, being one of the Governors of McGill College. It is largely due to his beneficence that the Montreal Diocesan College owes its existence, as the College building was presented by him to the Lord Bishop of Montreal some years ago, and he is now contemplating extensive improvements in the way of erecting a new Diocesan College on University street. He is a prominent member of the Church of England in Montreal, and has filled the position of Treasurer of the Synod. He has several times been the choice of the Conservative Party for Montreal West for the



much time and energy to that of the dry goods business, in which interest, and of which stockholder in the Dominion He has been, and is at the present, the leading spirit in that industry; the rapid strides it has made to which it has grown in Canada is largely due to his zeal and sagacity. Mr. Gault has always taken a lively interest in that industry, and believing that the best interests of the shareholders and the community at large would be furthered by the large number of factories in the Dominion being under one management instead of many, would enable it to compete with the rest of the world, and at the same time give a better and cheaper article to the people. He is President of the Dominion Cotton Mills Company, which has a capital of \$5,000,000.

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House of Commons, but always declined the honor. He has also been the unanimous choice of the citizens of Montreal for Mayor, but pressing business emergencies have prompted him to decline that honor. He is a strong adherent of the protective principles of the present Administration, and he feels thoroughly convinced that any other policy would prove detrimental to the whole Dominion.

Mr. Gault is kind, generous and courteous with all who come in contact with him; he is broad and liberal in his views on the social question, and is strongly convinced that much might be done to ameliorate the condition of his less fortunate fellow citizens, and it may be stated without the slightest hesitation, that were a majority of employers and capitalists made of the same material, and possessed of the same kindly nature as Mr. A. F. Gault, the contentions between Capital and Labor would in a short time be a matter of history.

PROMINENT COTTON MILLS IN CANADA.

PROMINENT among industries of a more recent growth in Canada is that of Cotton manufacture, which sprang suddenly into vigorous growth as a result of the adoption in 1878 of a policy of protection, a market having been at once created for home industries.

Canadian capitalists, with characteristic enterprise, invested their money in the new departure, and the Cotton Industry of Canada became, in an incredibly short time, a well-established fact.

There are, perhaps, few industries that in their history illustrate more forcibly the benefit of the National Policy. When the disastrous effects of the American Civil War upon trade and commerce, combined with other causes at work at the time, brought about the financial ruin of thousands, a cry was raised by the Canadian people for some practical effort of Government to change the prevailing state of things. The ultimate result was that when Sir John A. Macdonald, then in Opposition, declared the remedy to lie in Protection, the National Policy carried at the polls with enthusiasm. Since that date, new industries have sprung up on every side, money has been drawn into the country, and laborers have continued to flock to the land whose promising future awakened the world's attention. The previous stagnation in trade was broken by this great fiscal policy. The people at once were enabled to command their own markets, to revive old industries, and to encourage new ones.

Fresh enterprise entered into the field so recently barren, and many a thriving concern took its rise then. The Cotton Trade especially has been fostered by Protection; has, through that Policy, secured a firm footing in the country; and must, with the increase of our population, eventually move on to a magnitude scarcely contemplated at its commencement.

The Canadian Colored Cotton Mills Company, and the Dominion Cotton Mills Company, include very nearly all the cotton factories in Canada, and since the amalgamation in 1890-'91, an improvement has been most noticeable in every direction, the benefits of which to the country are innumerable. The workmen employed have had regular work at full wages, and the consumer has been enabled to buy goods of fine quality at moderate prices, while the investor, on whom so much depends, has had a reasonable though, in some cases, small interest.

These Mills not only supply the wants of our own population, but carry on also a regular export trade with China.

The two Companies give direct employment to nearly 6,500 persons, but this does not include the army which is indirectly employed in mining and conveying coal, in the transport of the raw and finished goods, in the making of the necessary machinery, and in the many smaller industries which are kept alive by the large ones.

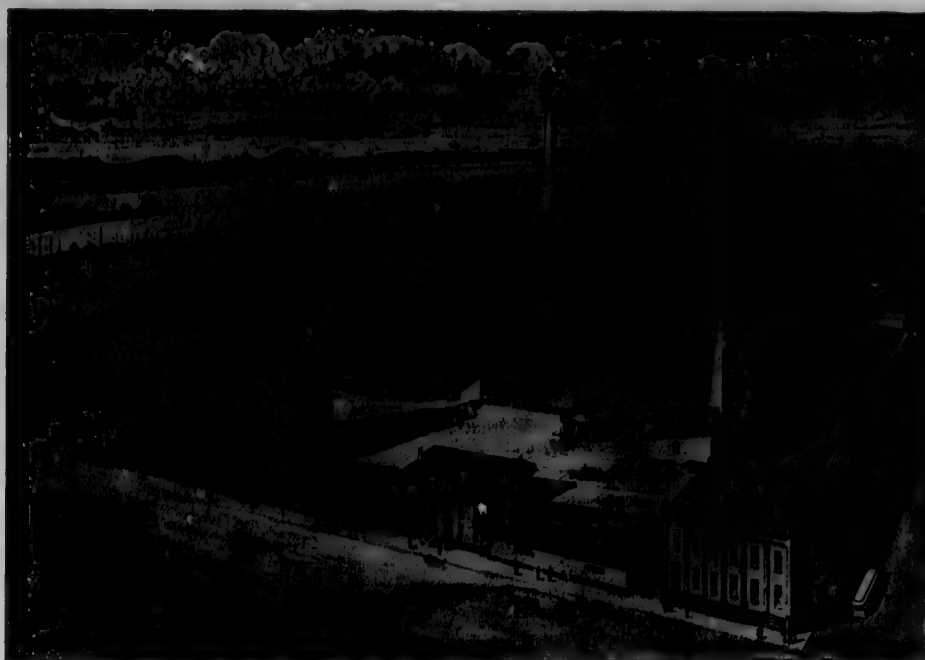
The Dominion Cotton Mills Company manufactures a very large variety of goods, including grey and white cottons, cantons, bags, bleached sheetings, towels, ducks, prints, yarns, twines, etc. They have mills at Hochelaga, St. Anne's, Brantford, Kingston, Magog, Chambly, Coaticook, Moncton, Halifax, and Windsor, N.S. In these they employ nearly 3,500 persons. They aim at placing on the market the better class of goods, and it is noticeable that their cotton prints can always be depended on for wear and color. At Magog they have very large and complete print works.

The Canadian Colored Cotton Mills Company manufacture all descriptions of gingham, shirtings, tickings, denims, cottonades, flannelettes, yarns, dress goods, etc. They employ in their mills about 3,000 persons. Their Mills are as follows:—"St. Croix," "Canada," and "Stormont," in Cornwall; "Ontario," in Hamilton, Ont.; "Merriton," and "Lybster," at Thorold, Ont., and "Dundas."

Altogether, there are employed in all the Cotton Mills in Canada about 8,700 hands. The sum of \$2,380,000 is paid annually in wages, outside of coal supplies, machinery, etc.

The Cotton Companies are distinguished for the able management which has rendered a position in any of their immense establishments a boon to the persons whom they employ. They have now to encounter no rivals. Having out-distanced all competition, the amalgamated Companies have appropriated the market. Importing their own materials, manufacturing their own supplies, they are enabled to sell first-class goods at an astonishingly moderate figure. If a number of rival houses held the market, the mere fact of the number of employees being so many times greater, would of itself increase the cost of producing, and consequently raise the price. The Cotton Trade of Canada is a great industry, and commands the confidence of financial centres abroad as well as at home; in confirmation of this, we may mention that the Dominion Cotton Mills Company have just made an issue of twenty-year "Bonds," to the amount of a million and a half dollars, on the London market at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., getting par for the same—these were to return 6 per cent. Bonds maturing, thus effecting a saving in interest to the Company of over twenty-two thousand dollars per annum.





THE DOMINION OIL CLOTH COMPANY.

THE Dominion Oil Cloth Company is especially distinguished, as having within a comparatively short period of time developed into a vast business, able to supply the home market with its special products.

In the year 1872, this Company was incorporated under the laws of the Province of Quebec, with a capital of \$200,000, which has long been fully paid up.

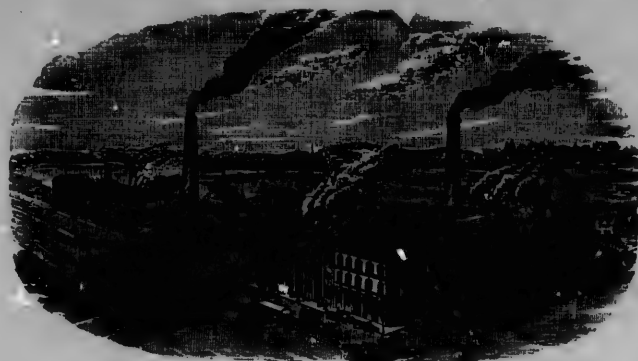
The history of a successful enterprise must always be to a certain extent a record of the careers of men endowed more than ordinarily with business ability and sound judgment, as well as the capacity to formulate and put into execution schemes requiring the keen foresight and steady management that only such natures can exercise. The executive officers of this firm have been eminently qualified for the position.

Since the formation of the Company in 1872, the Works have repeatedly undergone enlargements. Its facilities have been greatly increased; skilled superintendence is employed, and the newest and most improved appliances for producing the highest grade of Oil Cloth.

The Company has to-day seven splendidly equipped buildings of almost unlimited capacity, forming a truly model establishment, second to none in America. All the newest machinery, including Rolls and Presses have been introduced, while many advanced methods are followed, securing in their products more brilliant colours, along with the greatest possible durability. The plant is, in fact, conceded to be by far the most complete and efficient of the kind in the Dominion.

The Company find constant employment for upwards of one hundred and twenty-five skilled workmen. The quality of their goods has proved so superior in every respect, that the demand has steadily increased. Besides oil cloths, they manufacture also their own paints and supply the jobbing trade with the well-known "D. O. C." brands of pure white lead, paints and putty. The special product includes all the various grades of floor, carriage, table, stair and enamelled oil cloths, in a rare assortment of artistic, original patterns and charming hues to gratify the most fastidious tastes. The head office and factory are located at the corner of St. Catherine and Parthenais streets. The officers of the Company are as follows: Andrew Allan, president; J. O. Gravel, vice-president; J. J. McGill, treasurer; John Baillie, managing director.

THE CANADIAN RUBBER COMPANY OF MONTREAL.



From a glance at the above cut it may be seen that the manufacture of rubber goods has become one of the giant industries of the Dominion, and foremost amongst the people in that line is the Canadian Rubber Company the foundation of whose business began forty-two years ago, and emphatically owes its almost unparalleled success to the superiority of the goods manufactured by them and placed within the reach of the public by the business-like and straightforward methods of the company.

Their extensive establishment is situated on Notre Dame Street East, and the factories and grounds cover an area of five acres. The place is well worth a visit, the various departments being fully equipped with appliances in the newest lines. The machinery is operated by steam power. Employment is given in the factory to one thousand hands. Everywhere are proofs of prosperity and evidences of the up-to-date character of the enterprising men who controls that vast concern.

The Canadian Rubber Company manufactures rubber boots and shoes, clothing, felt boots, belting, steam packing, engine, hydrant, suction and fire hose, cotton and linen hose, valves, gaskets, car springs, carriage cloths, and hard rubber goods of every description.

The long established reputation of their house gives to the goods of this firm an advantage in the market unattainable by new-comers in the field. Their Vulcanized Rubber Machine Belting is famous in the trade, and is the outcome of numerous experiments during a period of twenty-five years, dating from its first appearance in the market.

In short, their goods are unrivalled for quality and uniform excellence, and have to contend against no superiors, either in America or Europe, while the prices quoted for them in all cases are as low as the lowest.

A praiseworthy promptitude characterizes all the business dealings of the Canadian Rubber Company. Orders are filled with exactness and dispatch.

Branch Houses have been established at Toronto and Winnipeg, and the interests of the Company are well maintained at these centres.

The present capital of the Company is \$2,000,000, of which \$1,500,000 is paid up. The officers are as follows: Andrew Allan, Esq., President; Hugh McLennan, Esq., Vice-President; Francis Scholes, Esq., Managing Director; J. J. McGill Esq., Manager; J. O. Gravel, Esq., Treasurer. This is a strong and representative executive. Mr. Allan, as President of the Merchants Bank and as head of the shipping firm of H. & A. Allan, has manifested surpassing abilities for the guidance of large enterprises, and the flourishing condition of these works is a forcible illustration. Mr. Scholes is in every way specially qualified for the office he fills. He retired from the active management, which office he held for twenty-five years and is at present Managing Director. Mr. McGill has been identified with the concern for ten years past and has charge of the works, and Mr. Gravel has been with the Company for over thirty years.

The prosperity of this enterprising Corporation affords one more proof of the oft attested fact that thoroughness and efficiency cannot in this favored country fail to come into their own. A reputation for push and integrity are the capital that from a Canadian public are sure to win that confidence and esteem, without which success is impossible. The Canadian Rubber Company have earned the just appreciation of that public to which they have always catered honorably and efficiently, and the continued prosperity of their business will be attended with the hearty good-will of all.

POSTAL DEPARTMENT.

NOTWITHSTANDING the great distances to be travelled, the Postal facilities of the Dominion of Canada are fully equal to those of any other country. There can be no truer index to a country's increasing volume of trade than that afforded by the growth of the business of the Post Office Department of the Government, and postal statistics must always have a peculiar interest.

In 1851 an Act of the Imperial Parliament transferred the control of the Post Office system in British North America to the various provincial authorities, and after Confederation, in 1867, there was no uniform system until April 1st, 1868, when the Post Office Act came into force, establishing uniform rates and regulations throughout the Dominion.

Since the date of Confederation the statistics of the Post Office Department show marked development. The following comparative table affords a striking idea of the increase and improvement in all matters in the charge of this Department :—

POSTAL OPERATIONS IN CANADA COMPARED—1868 to 1892.

Year.	Number of Offices.	Number of Money Order Offices.	Miles of Post Route.	Miles Travelled.	Amount Paid for Convey- ance of Mails.	Number of Letters, &c.	Number of Newspapers, &c.	Total Cost Per Head.
1868.....	3638	515	27,674	10,622,216	\$ 543,109	18,100,000	18,884,800	\$ cts.
1891.....	8061	1080	58,903	27,152,543	1,918,198	118,275,000	90,425,346	0 31
1892.....	8288	1120	59,519	28,462,384	2,031,740	123,665,000	100,764,911	0 83
								0 86

In 1868 the conveyance of mails over 10,622,216 miles cost, per mile, 5 1-10 cents, and the transmission of 36,984,800 letters, newspapers, etc., cost 1 4-10 cents apiece; in 1892 the conveyance of mails over 28,462,384 miles, cost 7 cents per mile, and the transmission of 224,429,911 letters, newspapers, etc., 9-10 of one cent apiece; so that there is a decrease in the cost of each article carried of about $\frac{1}{2}$ of one cent; and it is worthy of remark that, if newspapers were carried now at the old rate of one cent per ounce, a sum of probably not less than \$100,000 would be added to the revenue each year.

POSTAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF CANADA, FROM 1868 to 1892.

Year ended 30th June.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Expenditure in Excess of Revenue.	Amount per Head.	
				Revenue.	Expenditure.
				\$ cts.	\$ cts.
1868	\$ 1,024,710	\$ 1,001,142	\$ 28,859	0 30	0 31
1869	973,056	1,079,828	106,772	0 29	0 32
1870	1,010,767	1,155,261	144,493	0 29	0 33
1871	1,079,767	1,271,006	191,238	0 31	0 36
1872	1,193,062	1,369,163	176,100	0 33	0 38
1873	1,406,984	1,553,604	146,619	0 38	0 42
1874	1,476,207	1,695,480	219,272	0 39	0 44
1875	1,536,509	1,873,241	336,731	0 40	0 48
1876	1,484,886	1,959,758	474,871	0 38	0 50
1877	1,501,134	2,075,618	574,483	0 37	0 52
1878	1,620,022	2,110,365	490,343	0 40	0 52
1879	1,534,463	2,167,266	632,902	0 37	0 52
1880	1,648,007	2,286,611	605,045	0 39	0 54
1881	1,767,953	2,332,398	565,236	0 41	0 54
1882	2,022,008	2,459,356	437,258	0 46	0 56
1883	2,264,384	2,687,394	423,009	0 51	0 61
1884	2,330,741	2,931,387	600,646	0 52	0 65
1885	2,400,062	3,097,882	697,820	0 53	0 68
1886	2,469,379	3,380,410	911,031	0 54	0 74
1887	2,603,275	3,458,100	854,845	0 56	0 75
1888	2,751,139	3,533,397	782,258	0 59	0 75
1889	2,984,222	3,746,040	761,817	0 63	0 79
1890	3,223,615	3,940,696	717,081	0 67	0 82
1891	3,374,888	4,020,740	645,852	0 70	0 83
1892	3,542,611	4,205,985	663,374	0 72	0 86

The expenditure has exceeded the revenue continuously during the last twenty-five years, but the excess of expenditure has been decreasing during recent years, with the exception of 1894, when there was an increase of \$60,225 to \$4,442,339. The revenue, which has been steadily increasing for several years, showed a further increase of \$38,356 to \$3,734,418. Making certain deductions from revenue, the net revenue for 1894 showed an increase of \$35,833 over that of 1893. Though this increase was inconsiderable, it yet compared very favorably with that of the Imperial Post Office. The increase in Canada was 1.29 per cent., and in the United Kingdom it was 1.24 per cent.

The Official Year Book, issued in the autumn of 1895, stated that during that year 187 new post offices were opened. The total number of post offices in 1894 was 3,664, the number at Confederation having been 3,683. As compared with 1893 there was a decrease of 16,800 in the number of registered letters, and an increase of 202,500 in that of free letters, and 855,000 in the total number of letters sent. The total number of letters sent in 1894 was 107,145,000 or 21.34 per head, against 18,100,000 or 5.37 per head in the first year of Confederation. Post Cards, which were first issued in 1871, have now reached the large total of 23,695,000, the increase over 1893 being 905,000; 4,646,000 only were used in 1876, the first year for which a separate return as to post cards is available.

In proportion to area, the post offices are distributed as follows:—

	post office to	6 sq. miles.
Prince Edward Island	1	13
Nova Scotia	1	25
New Brunswick	1	73
Ontario	1	149
Quebec	1	178
Manitoba	1	1,750
British Columbia	1	6,876
The Territories	1	

The following table gives the Postal Revenue and Expenditure of Canada from Confederation up to June 30th, 1893 :—

Year ended 30th June.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Expenditure in Excess of Revenue.	Amount per Head.	
				Revenue.	Expenditure.
				\$ cts.	\$ cts.
1868	\$ 1,024,710	\$ 1,053,570	\$ 28,859	0 30	0 31
1878	1,620,022	2,110,365	490,343	0 40	0 52
1888	2,751,139	3,533,397	782,258	0 59	0 75
1889	2,984,222	3,746,040	761,817	0 63	0 79
1890	3,223,615	3,940,696	717,081	0 67	0 82
1891	3,374,888	4,020,740	645,852	0 70	0 83
1892	3,542,611	4,205,985	663,374	0 72	0 86
1893	3,696,062	4,343,758	647,696	0 74	0 88

The Post Office Department is presided over by Sir A. P. Caron, K.C.M.G., who became Postmaster-General in January, 1882. He is a son of the late Hon. R. E. Caron, and was born in the city of Quebec on December 24th, 1843. He was educated in his native city, and subsequently graduated at McGill University. He was called to the Bar in 1865, and was made a Queen's Counsel in 1879. He entered Parliament in 1873, and some seven years later was appointed Minister of Militia. After the suppression of the North-West Rebellion, he was created K.C.M.G. It is needless to say that the arrangements and working of the Post Office Department were never more efficient and thorough than since Sir Adolphe Caron has held the portfolio of Postmaster-General.

The following is a list of the officials of the Post Office Department :—

Postmaster-General—Sir A. P. Caron.

Private Secretary to Postmaster-General—G. G. V. Ardouin.

Deputy Postmaster-General—Lt.-Col. W. White.

SECRETARY'S BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Secretary—W. D. Le Sueur.

First-class Clerks—A. W. Throop, G. G. V. Ardouin, C. Pope.

Second-class Clerks—J. M. O'Leary, F. G. Moon, J. H. Brown, B. M. Northrop, A. Lampman, E. Bemel.

ACCOUNTANT'S BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Accountant—W. J. Barrett.

First-class Clerks—W. J. Johnstone, John Graham, G. C. Anderson.

Second-class Clerks—E. H. Benjamin, L. Blanchet, A. H. McLennan, D. F. McCarthy, L. H. Pouliot, N. G. D'Autaul, W. Greaves, W. Rowan, D. A. Barrett, T. McGrail, M. K. Dunlevie, C. W. Lally, H. S. Shaw, C. O. Doucet.

MONEY ORDER BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Superintendent—G. F. Everett.

First-class Clerk—S. S. Thorne.

Second-class Clerks—S. F. Wall, J. C. Bonner.

SAVINGS BANK BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Superintendent—D. Matheson.

First-class Clerk—W. H. Harrington.

Second-class Clerks—J. Rose Smith, W. H. Eagleson, J. H. Fairweather, E. B. Bell, W. H. Kreps, W. H. McCuaig.

POSTAL STORES BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Controller of Postal Stores—Sidney Smith.

First-class Clerk—O. Fortier.

Second-class Clerks—W. D. O'Brien, H. H. Gray.

DEAD LETTER BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Superintendent—John Walsh.

First-class Clerk—G. R. White.

Second-class Clerk—G. J. Binks.

MAIL SERVICE BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Superintendent—A. Lindsay.

Second-class Clerks—H. W. Griffin, W. Smith, P. J. Brennan.

POSTAGE STAMPS BRANCH.

Chief Clerk and Superintendent—E. P. Stanton.

Second-class Clerks—A. Devine, E. Daubney.

POST OFFICE INSPECTORS.

Chief Inspector—M. Sweetnam, Toronto.

Nova Scotia—C. J. Macdonald, Halifax.

Prince Edward Island—F. De St. Croix Brecken (Postmaster of Charlottetown and Assistant Post Office Inspector.

New Brunswick—S. J. King, St. John.

Quebec—A. Bolduc.

Three Rivers—G. Desilets.

Montreal—Vacant.

Ottawa—F. Hawken.

Kingston—H. Merrick.

Toronto—R. W. Barker.

Barrie—A. Jones.

London—D. Spry.

Stratford—Henry G. Hopkirk.

Manitoba and N. W. Territories—W. W. McLeod.

British Columbia—E. H. Fletcher.

Canada was admitted a member of the International Postal Union in 1878. This Union now includes almost every civilized country in the world, being compassed of the following :—The whole of Europe ; the whole of America ; Russia in Asia ; Turkey in Asia ; Persia ; British India (Burmah, and the postal establishments at Aden, Muscat, and Guadur) ; Japan ; Siam ; the British, French, Dutch, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies ; and the British, French, German, and Japanese postal establishments in China and Corea. In Africa—Egypt, Algeria, Tripoli, Tunis, Liberia, Congo Free State, the Azores, Madeira, the postal establishments of India and France at Zanzibar, the French, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish colonies, some of the British colonies, the Orange Free State, all the territories under the protectorate of Germany, and the French postal establishment at Tamatave (Madagascar). In Australasia and Oceania—the British colonies on the Continent, Tasmania, New Zealand, Fiji, British and German New Guinea, Hawaii, the Marshall Islands, and the French, Dutch, and Spanish colonies.

The Post Office Department includes the Post Office Savings' Banks.

The Post Office Act, passed on December 20th, 1867, provides for the establishment of Post Office Savings' Banks in Canada. It was, however, limited in operation, as regards the savings' banks, to the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. It provides that a deposit must be less than one dollar, and must not exceed three hundred dollars in any one year ; neither must the total amount in deposits exceed one thousand dollars.

The rate of interest paid was formerly 4 per cent, but it is now $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The Post Offices in the leading Canadian cities—notably that in Montreal—are imposing and handsome edifices.

"SOMETHING ELSE."*

By M. FREDERIC BASTIAT, *Member of the Institute of France.*

WHAT is restriction? A partial prohibition. What is prohibition? An absolute restriction. So that what is said of one is true of the other? Yes, comparatively. They bear the same relation to each other that the arc of the circle does to the circle. Then if prohibition is bad, restriction cannot be good? No more than the arc can be straight if the circle is curved.

What is the common name for restriction and prohibition? Protection. What is the definite effect of protection? To require from men *harder labor for the same result*. Why are men so much attached to the protective system? Because, since liberty would accomplish the same result *with less labor*, this apparent diminution of labor frightens them. Why do you say *apparent*? Because all labor economized can be devoted to *something else*. What? That cannot and need not be determined. Why? Because, if the total of the comforts of France could be gained with a diminution of one-tenth on the total of its labor, no one could determine what comforts it would procure with the labor remaining at its disposal. One person would prefer to be better clothed, another better fed, another better taught, and another more amused.

Explain the workings and effect of protection. It is not an easy matter. Before taking hold of a complicated instance, it must be studied in the simplest one. Take the simplest you choose. Do you recollect how Robinson Crusoe, having no saw, set to work to make a plank? Yes. He cut down a tree, and then with his axe hewed the trunk on both sides until he got it down to the thickness of a board. And that gave him an abundance of work? Fifteen full days. What did he live on during this time? His provisions. What happened to the axe? It was all blunted. Very good; but there is one thing which, perhaps, you do not know. At the moment that Robinson gave the first blow with his axe, he saw a plank which the waves had cast up on the shore. Oh, the lucky accident! He ran to pick it up? It was his first impulse; but he checked himself, reasoning thus: "If I go after this plank, it will cost me but the labor of carrying it and the time spent in going to and returning from the shore. But if I make a plank with my axe, I shall in the first place obtain work for fifteen days, then I shall wear out my axe, which will give me an opportunity of repairing it, and I shall consume my provisions, which will be a third source of labor, since they must be replaced. Now, *labor is wealth*. It is plain that I will ruin myself if I pick up this stranded board. It is important to protect my *personal labor*, and now that I think of it, I can create myself additional labor by kicking this board back into the sea."

But this reasoning was absurd! Certainly. Nevertheless, it is that adopted by every nation which *protects* itself by prohibition. It rejects the plank which is offered it in exchange for a little labor, in order to give itself more labor. It sees a gain even in the labor of the custom-house officer. This answers to the trouble which Robinson took to give back to the waves the present they wished to make him. Consider the nation a collective being, and you will not find an atom of difference between its reasoning and that of Robinson. Did not Robinson see that he could use the time saved in doing *something else*? What "*something else*?"

So long as one has wants and time, one has always *something* to do. I am not bound to specify the labor that he could undertake. I can specify very easily that which he would have avoided. I assert that Robinson, with incredible blindness, confounded labor with its result, the end with the means, and I will prove it to you. It is not necessary. But this is the restrictive or prohibitory system in its simplest form. If it appears absurd to you, thus stated, it is because the two qualities of producer and consumer are here united in the same person.

Let us pass, then, to a more complicated instance. Willingly. Some time after all this. Robinson having met Friday, they united and began to work in common. They hunted for six hours each morning, and brought home four hampers of game. They worked in the garden for six hours each afternoon, and obtained four baskets of vegetables. One day a canoe touched at the Island of Despair. A good-looking stranger

* *Sophisms of Protection*: G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y.

landed, and was allowed to dine with our two hermits. He tasted, and praised the products of the garden, and before taking leave of his hosts, said to them:—"Generous Islanders, I dwell in a country much richer in game than this, but where horticulture is unknown. It would be easy for me to bring you every evening four hampers of game, if you would give me only two baskets of vegetables."

At these words Robinson and Friday stepped on one side to have a consultation, and the debate which followed is too interesting not to be given *in extenso*: Friday—Friend, what do you think of it? Robinson—If we accept, we are ruined. Friday—Is that certain? Calculate! Robinson—It is all calculated. Hunting, crushed out by competition, will be a lost branch of industry for us. Friday—What difference does that make if we have the game? Robinson—Theory! It will not be the product of our labor. Friday—Yes, it will, since we have to give vegetables to get it. Robinson—Then what shall we make? Friday—The four hampers of game cost us six hours' labor. The stranger gives them to us for two baskets of vegetables, which takes us but three hours. Thus three hours remain at our disposal. Robinson—Say rather that they are taken from our activity. There is our loss. *Labor is wealth*, and if we lose a fourth of our time we are one-fourth poorer. Friday—Friend, you make an enormous mistake. The same amount of game and vegetables, and three free hours to boot make progress, or there is none in the world. Robinson—Mere generalities. What will we do with these three hours? Friday—We will do *something else*. Robinson—Ah, now I have you. You can specify nothing. It is very easy to say *something else—something else*. Friday—We will fish. We will adorn our houses. We will read the Bible. Robinson—Utopia! Is it certain that we will do this rather than that? Friday—Well, if we have no wants, we will rest. Is rest nothing? Robinson—When one rests one dies of hunger.

Friday—Friend, you are in a vicious circle. I speak of a rest which diminishes neither our gains nor our vegetables. You always forget that by means of our commerce with this stranger nine hours of labor will give us as much food as twelve now do. Robinson—It is easy to see that you were not reared in Europe. Perhaps you have never read the *Moniteur Industriel*? It would have taught you this—"All time saved is a dear loss. Eating is not the important matter, but working. Nothing which we consume counts if it is not the product of our labor. Do you wish to know whether you are rich? Do not look at your comforts, but at your trouble." This is what the *Moniteur Industriel* would have taught you. I, who am not a theorist, see but the loss of our hunting.

Friday—What a strange perversion of ideas. But—Robinson—No buts. Besides, there are political reasons for rejecting the interested offers of this perfidious stranger. Friday—Political reasons! Robinson—Yes. In the first place, he makes these offers only because they are for his advantage. Friday—So much the better, since they are for ours also. Robinson—Then by these exchanges we shall become dependent on him. Friday—And he on us. We need his game, he our vegetables, and we will live in good friendship. Robinson—Fancy! Do you want I should leave you without an answer? Friday—Let me see; I am still waiting a good reason. Robinson—Supposing that the stranger learns to cultivate a garden, and that his island is more fertile than ours. Do you see the consequences? Friday—Yes. Our relations with the stranger will stop. He will take no more vegetables from us, since he can get them at home with less trouble. He will bring us no more game, since we will have nothing to give in exchange, and we will be then just where you want us to be now. Robinson—Short-sighted savage! You do not see that after having destroyed our hunting by inundating us with game, he will kill our gardening by overwhelming us with vegetables. Friday—But he will do that only so long as we give him *something else*; that is to say, so long as we find *something else* to produce, which will economize our labor. Robinson—*Something else—something else!* You always come back to that. You are very vague, friend Friday; there is nothing practical in your views.

The contest lasted a long time, and, as often happens, left each one convinced that he was right. However, Robinson having great influence over Friday, his views prevailed, and when the stranger came for an answer, Robinson said to him: "Stranger, in order that your proposition may be accepted, we must be quite sure of two things: The first is, that your island is not richer in game than ours, for we will struggle, but with *equal arms*. The second is, that you will lose by the bargain. For, as in every exchange, there is necessarily a gainer and a loser, we would be cheated if you were not. What have you to say?" "Nothing, nothing," replied the stranger, who burst out laughing, and returned to his canoe.

THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

THE importance of the office of Secretary of State becomes apparent when we consider that he is the channel of communication between the Dominion and Provincial Governments. The correspondence of the Department is very large. It has charge of all State correspondence, and all State records not specially transferred to other Departments, are in its care.

The Department was formed in 1867. Its proper title is "The Department of the Secretary of State of Canada."

To the Secretary of State are sent all Petitions of right, Petitions for executive clemency to criminals, etc., addressed to the Governor-General in Council.

He is the Registrar-General of Canada, and upon him devolves the duty of registering all Proclamations, Commissions, Letters Patent, Writs, and other instruments issued under the Great Seal; and all bonds, warrants, leases, and other instruments requiring registration. The registry branch of the Department is, in fact, the Record Office of the Dominion.

The office of Secretary of State is at present held by Sir Charles Tupper, Bart., G.C.M.G., C.B.

The other officers of the Department are:—

Under Secretary of State and Deputy Registrar-General—L. A. Catellier.

Chief Clerk of the Correspondence Branch—F. Pelletier.

Chief Clerk and Keeper of the Records—A. Audet.

Accountant—E. Colson.

Private Secretary to the Minister—W. Ide.

Senior Officer of Registry Branch—I. W. Storr.

The Secretary of State is charged with the administration of the "Canada Temperance Act," "The Companies' Act," "The Civil Service Act," "The Act respecting Commissions to Public Officers," and "The Trades Union Act."

He is also charged with the collection of information needed for Returns demanded by either the Senate or the House of Commons.

A very interesting feature of the Department is the Records' Branch, which contains an immense store of documents, as valuable as interesting, bearing on the history of Canada, and dating back to the time of the French Regime. These are now in process of classification.

The Board of Civil Service Examiners is under the supervision of the Secretary of State. This Board is comprised of three members:—

Chairman—J. T. Thorburn, LL.D., Librarian of the Department of the Geological Survey.

A. D. DeCelles—General Librarian of Parliament.

J. C. Glashan—Secretary.

J. F. Waters, M.A.

HON. AUGUSTE RÉAL ANGERS.

THERE is probably no man whose name is recorded in the pages of this work who has had a more brilliant career than Hon. Auguste Réal Angers, the Minister of Agriculture in the present Dominion Cabinet. He was born in 1838, and was educated at the Seminary of Nicolet. He completed his collegiate course at the age of 16, and led by the example and achievements of his distinguished family, as well as personal predilections, he selected the legal profession as the field of his labors. His father was one of the most eminent men of his day, jurist, consultant, poet and essayist. He ranked as one of the first leaders of Lower Canada in that intellectual movement which started in 1834 and terminated in 1854. However, the son has perhaps excelled his father both at the bar and in the forum.

He was admitted to the Quebec bar in 1860, the year that his father died. He joined the law firm of Casault & Langlois, and was soon regarded as one of the foremost lights of the legal profession of his province. His pleadings were always noted for their precision and logic. His forensic erudition was extensive and profound, and his style of delivery animated and bright. His firm rapidly became one of the most famous and influential in Quebec province.

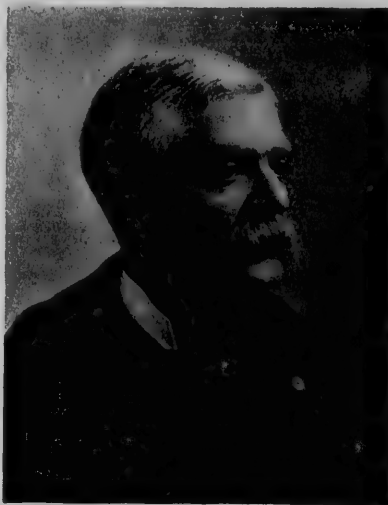
From 1860 to 1874, Mr.

most entirely to his profession. He was chosen as leader of the Legislative Assembly, was admitted in the front rank of the political career. Just at the moment, and triumph seemed to him, the *coup d'état* of the put an end to his political House, and destroyed the Boucherville and himself. Fallen from power in 1878, he resumed the practice of his profession, never lost sight of him him to return to the political arena. He was destined to grace for a very brief period, several debates which computation for eloquence and grace of a position on the House and the country, of the Superior Court of

additional laurels in the impartial discharge of his eminent judicial functions. Yet was he ever remembered in the world of politics; often was his name mentioned as that of a man whose services could not be dispensed with. Thus in 1887, he retired to accept the appointment of the lieutenant-governorship of Quebec. His occupancy of the gubernatorial office will be memorable in Canadian history as that which led to the downfall and disgrace of Honoré Mercier. Lieutenant-Governor Angers played a prominent part in that great political event, and his dismissal for corruption of the Mercier government in the very fullness of its power and popularity was a political *coup d'état* that shook the Province of Quebec from one end to the other. Subsequent events and the voice of the people appear to have justified his bold act. It, however, called down upon his head the wrath of the Liberal party, and made him a shining mark for virulent and hostile criticism.

Mr. Angers was first married to Miss Chinic, daughter of Senator Chinic. She died in 1879 whilst yet quite young. His second in 1889 when he espoused the widow of Mr. Arthur Hamel of Quebec, the daughter of Mr. Alexander Lemoine. Two sons and a daughter were born of the first marriage.

Mr. Angers is not only thoroughly versed in the politics of the day, but he is besides a scholar in the broadest sense of the word, a lover of the fine arts, possessed of a cultured mind and a vigorous intellect. Independent of his political career as looked upon from a party point of view, he is one of the bright galaxy of distinguished men who have shed a bright lustre on the French-Canadian race, and one of whom every Canadian can feel proud.



Angers devoted himself all his life to politics. In 1874, he entered the Conservative party, and was one of its orators. In 1878, Mr. Angers resumed the political arena when visions of future glory brightened the horizon before 4th of March in that year useful in the Quebec government of which Devereux were the main supporters. Mr. Angers resumed the political arena, how and frequently importuned arena. In 1880, he stood for Parliament and was elected. His seat in the Commons. However, he took part in firming his distinguished statesmanship. His acceptance was a loss to the Province. From 1880 to 1887, as judge of the Quebec Province, he gained

HON. JOSEPH ALDRIC OUMET.

A PECULIAR interest attaches to the fact that among Canadian statesmen, not the least illustrious have been scions of old French families of the Province of Quebec. These would seem to be, from the first, special favourites of fortune, inheriting the fine chivalrous temper of old France, together with the hardihood, endurance and pluck that characterize the pioneer inhabitants of a new country.

Pre-eminent among such noted Canadians is the subject of our sketch, Joseph Aldric Ouimet, a descendant of Jean Ouimet, who, in 1634, settled with his family at Ste.-Famille, in Ile d'Orléans. The parents of Joseph Aldric Ouimet were Michel Ouimet, and his wife, Elizabeth Filiatrault St. Louis. He was born May 20, 1847. It was only by dint of strict economy that his parents were able to obtain for their gifted son the education they desired. They sent him to the College of Ste.-Thérèse, where his brilliant scholastic course rewarded their self-denial. He evinced there so decided a natural bent towards law as a profession, that on leaving college it was decided that he should enter the office of Mr. Edmund Barnard. At this time, to cover the expenses of his legal training, he wrote regularly for the columns of *Le Nouveau Monde* and *La Minerve*, continuing his journalistic labours until the moment of his admission to the Bar in 1870.

Thereafter, his course His superior abilities obtained speedy recognition, and his services were eagerly sought by certain of his practice. He entered into partnership first with Messrs. Bélanger and Desnoyers, and subsequently with Judge Ouimet, Mr. Nantel, the Minister of Public Works at Quebec, and Mr. Corneillier; he is now at the head of the firm of Ouimet, Emard & Maurault.

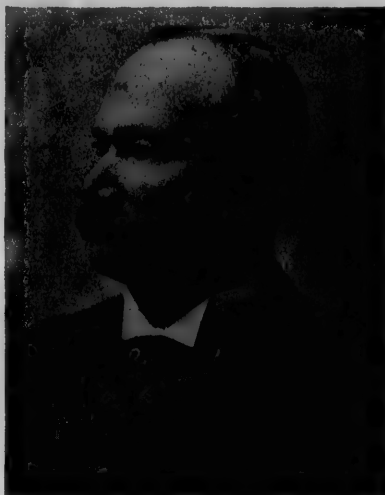
Mr. Ouimet is a distinguished lawyer. His legal opinions are in demand, and he is listened to with marked attention. The most interesting phase of his life, however, is that in which we see him as a constituent, respected by course inspired by the truest into political life was effected member for Laval in the House of Commons. He announced himself a supporter of the Conservative Government, which, however, a few weeks later, how- acclamation at the general elections of 1874, 1878 and 1882.

From 1887 to 1891, he occupied the prominent position of Speaker of the House of Commons. He had been, in 1880, appointed Queen's Counsel, and on May 20, 1891, his birthday, he was appointed one of Her Majesty's Privy Council.

Mr. Ouimet gained military distinction in 1885 during the North-West Rebellion. He had become, in 1879, Colonel of the Montreal Chasseurs, and had, in 1870, gone out against the second Fenian Raid. The part played by Colonel Ouimet in the North-West is unusually interesting. His regiment saw hard service during the expedition, and many are the stories told of the courage and hardihood displayed by their leader. His just and kindly dealings with the Métis won for him an ascendancy over them which was invaluable. He stood well also with the English of the Territories, his stability of purpose, and upright spirit securing their confidence and esteem. It has been said that among all the officers, Colonel Ouimet was the one who best understood the situation of affairs in the North-West, a result to be attributed to his sagacity in putting himself *en rapport* with the people.

During the course of his parliamentary career, Hon. Mr. Ouimet has taken part in many important discussions. His opinions always have weight, and are listened to with earnest attention. His manner is quiet, he is well informed, energetic, and possessed of great tact and acumen. He is now Minister of Public Works.

Mr. Ouimet married, in 1874, Miss Thérèse LaRocque, and is as fortunate in his domestic life as in the varied events of his public career. His home is in Quebec City.



HON. WALTER HUMPHRIES MONTAGUE, M.D., M.P.

THE subject of this sketch is a son of the late Joseph Montague, Esq., a well-known and highly respected farmer in the township of Adelaide, Middlesex County, Ontario.

Dr. Montague was born on the homestead farm on the 31st of November, 1858.

He received his education first at the Common School, and subsequently at the High School in the same neighborhood, passing thence to the Woodstock College, Victoria University, and Toronto School of Medicine.

He graduated as doctor of Medicine at Victoria University in 1882.

Dr. Montague pursued the profession of his choice with all the ardor of an enthusiast, as well as with the painstaking labor and care which characterize a scientific bent. As a physician Dr. Montague rapidly gained distinction. He is a member of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Ontario, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, Scotland. His practice has been eminently successful, and it was from no lack of professional zeal that, in 1883, we find him entering the political arena. He in that year contested the county of Monck for the Provincial Legislature at the general elections, but was unsuccessful. He was first returned at the member in the Dominion election was, however, elected at bye-election held ment of the Supreme Court voided, and he was an the bye-election held early also declared void, how- the bye-election that fol- later. He was re-elected 1891.

Dr. Montague has com- mand ever since his first ency in 1887. In 1888 he to the Speech from the

Upon Sir Mackenzie Dr. Montague was appoint- out portfolio, and on March retary of State.

Dr. Montague is a man public spirit, and is very which he represents. He been an earnest and con- Party, but is popular with opinion. He is now in the prime and vigor of life, and is likely to serve his country ably and honorably for many years to come.

As a public speaker the Doctor has few equals in the House of Commons, or probably in the Dominion of Canada. He is an orator pure and simple, and wherever he addresses a public gathering his name attracts large audiences, and he is listened to with the most profound attention. In discussing public questions, Hon. Doctor Montague is a tower of strength to his party. As a debater in the House he can throw shot after shot into the enemy's camp with the most telling effect, and strike his opponents blow after blow in sledge-hammer fashion, without in the slightest entering into personalities, and it is no exaggeration to say that the subject of this sketch is one of the most able exponents of the Liberal-Conservative platform in the ranks of that party at the present time. He is liberal and broadminded in his views, thoroughly Canadian in his aims and aspirations, and has an earnest and enthusiastic faith in the future of the country.

Dr. Montague's whole course has been characterized by an amount of intellectual candor and moral courage which do him credit. His career affords a striking contrast to the practice of those who either drift with the current or, lacking the talent of patience, waste their strength in hasty and ill-considered contests.

He married, in 1879, Angie, daughter of Elias Furry, Esq., J.P., Reeve of South Cayuga, County of Haldimand, Ont.



general elections of 1887 as House for Haldimand. This voided, and he was re- November, 1887. By judg- this election was also unsuccessful candidate at in 1889. This election was over, and he was elected at lowrd a month or two at the general elections of

tinued to represent H. ldi- election for that constitu- moved the address in reply Throne.

Bowell becoming Premier, ed a Cabinet Minister with- 26th, 1895, he became Sec-

of much enterprise and popular in the constituency is a Conservative and has sistent supporter of his adherents of all shades of

THE DEPARTMENT OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

It is not possible to exaggerate the importance of this Department, which has so much to do with bringing about the successful operations of all the others. It is by the publication of the facts and conditions of this Department that settlers are induced to come to the newer provinces, and share the privileges of the favored inhabitants of the Great Dominion. The advantages accruing from the geographical position of Canada are numerous, and in many respects unique, and their value has been greatly enhanced by a wise Governmental policy.

This Department was authorized by Act of Parliament, and assented to, June 23rd, 1887, but the Act was not put in force until 1892, when, by Order-in-Council, the Hon. Mackenzie Bowell, then Minister of Customs, was appointed Minister of Trade and Commerce, the portfolios of Customs and of Inland Revenue being abolished. These two Departments were made subsidiary divisions of the Department of Trade and Commerce, and placed under Controllers.

To quote from the Act :—

"The duties and powers of the Minister of Trade and Commerce extend to the execution of laws relating to such matters connected with Trade and Commerce generally, as are not by law assigned to any other Department of the Government, as well as to the direction of all public bodies, officers and servants employed in the execution of such laws."

The portfolios of the Minister of Trade and Commerce is held to-day by the Hon. William Bullock Ives, Q.C., M.P., who was born in Compton County, Que., in 1841. He was called to the Bar of Quebec in 1867, and was appointed a Queen's Counsel in 1880. He entered Parliament in 1878, representing Richmond and Wolfe, and continued to represent the same constituency until 1891, when he was returned for his present seat, Sherbrooke. He became President of the Privy Council upon the re-organization of the Cabinet by Sir John Thompson, and exchanged his portfolio for that of Minister of Trade and Commerce in December, 1894.

The administration of the Chinese Immigration Act has been specially assigned to this Department. It has been ordered :—

"That, for the purpose of administering said Chinese Immigration Act, all officers of the Customs' Outside Service who have been, or may hereafter be, made Controllers under the said Act, shall be subject to the orders of, and shall be required to report to, the Minister of Trade and Commerce in so far as their duties relate to the enforcement of the provisions of the Act, or of any amendment thereto."

During seasons of almost universal commercial depression, when European trade and that of the United States is greatly affected, the figures of Canadian Trade and Commerce have shown a condition of things

which cannot fail to reassure and satisfy the public of the Dominion. The average annual value per head, during the years that have elapsed since Confederation, has been :—Of imports, \$25.48; of exports, \$20.64; and of the total trade, \$46.12; therefore, in 1893, the imports were 53 cents, the exports \$3.26, and the total trade \$3.79 above the average.

The following table shows the grand aggregate trade from 1868 to 1893, inclusive, on the basis of "Total Exports and Imports" :—

YEAR.	Total Exports.	Total Imports.	Grand Total, Imports and Exports.
1868.....	\$ 57,567,888	\$ 73,459,644	\$131,027,532
1869.....	60,474,781	60,415,165	130,889,946
1870.....	73,573,490	74,814,339	148,387,829
1871.....	74,173,618	96,092,971	170,266,589
1872.....	82,639,663	111,430,527	194,070,190
1873.....	89,789,922	128,011,281	217,801,203
1874.....	89,351,928	128,213,582	217,565,510
1875.....	77,886,979	123,070,283	200,957,262
1876.....	80,066,435	93,210,346	174,176,781
1877.....	75,875,393	99,327,962	175,203,355
1878.....	79,323,667	93,081,787	172,405,454
1879.....	71,491,255	81,964,427	153,455,682
1880.....	87,911,458	86,489,747	174,401,205
1881.....	98,290,823	105,330,840	203,621,663
1882.....	102,137,203	119,419,500	221,556,703
1883.....	98,085,804	132,254,022	230,339,826
1884.....	91,406,496	116,397,043	207,803,539
1885.....	89,238,361	108,941,486	198,179,847
1886.....	85,251,314	104,424,561	189,675,875
1887.....	89,515,811	112,892,236	202,408,047
1888.....	90,203,000	110,894,630	201,097,630
1889.....	89,189,167	115,224,931	204,414,078
1890.....	96,740,149	121,858,241	218,607,390
1891.....	98,417,296	119,967,638	218,384,934
1892.....	113,963,375	127,406,068	241,369,443
1893.....	118,564,352	129,074,268	247,638,620
Total for twenty-six years.....	\$2,262,038,628	\$2,783,667,525	\$5,045,706,153

The following table gives the aggregate trade of the Dominion by countries, on the basis of goods entered for consumption and exported :—

Fiscal Year.	Great Britain.	United States.	France.	Germany.	Spain.	Portugal.	Italy.	Holland.
1884.....	\$ 87,154,242	\$ 89,333,366	\$2,160,804	\$2,171,346	\$648,569	\$240,235	\$322,499	\$333,977
1885.....	83,284,482	86,902,935	2,239,890	2,385,344	481,910	227,096	255,712	361,879
1886.....	82,143,828	81,436,808	2,509,581	2,408,821	432,540	301,927	215,298	309,559
1887.....	89,534,079	82,767,265	2,415,001	3,672,985	481,289	204,671	245,560	309,320
1888.....	79,383,705	91,053,913	2,642,557	3,563,106	427,249	230,397	235,816	332,169
1889.....	80,422,515	94,059,844	2,562,893	3,836,173	420,794	238,106	186,186	414,302
1890.....	91,743,935	92,814,783	2,894,154	4,286,136	392,294	291,811	244,545	423,300
1891.....	91,328,384	94,824,352	2,565,877	4,336,232	555,917	191,148	322,808	404,532
1892.....	106,254,984	92,125,599	2,770,173	3,526,228	489,652	155,479	490,839	846,107
1893.....	107,228,906	102,144,986	3,096,164	4,576,224	387,861	135,482	661,403	636,427

AGGREGATE TRADE OF THE DOMINION.—(Continued.)

Fiscal Year.	Belgium.	Newfound-land.	West Indies.	South America.	China and Japan.	Switzerland.	Other Countries.	Total.
1884.....	\$746,528	\$2,701,120	\$6,726,486	\$2,756,371	\$1,970,541	\$242,380	\$2,078,676	\$199,587,140
1885.....	551,645	2,022,073	5,608,057	2,802,042	2,528,369	217,666	1,989,280	191,948,380
1886.....	517,472	2,139,301	5,266,042	2,111,029	2,495,703	203,085	2,363,014	184,854,008
1887.....	927,580	2,072,946	4,017,593	2,625,066	2,819,584	219,777	2,841,913	195,155,239
1888.....	505,800	1,945,426	5,870,149	2,487,240	2,261,155	194,938	2,016,480	193,050,100
1889.....	595,496	1,791,496	6,138,109	2,813,587	2,048,712	166,905	3,167,496	198,862,814
1890.....	763,146	1,655,400	5,808,189	2,555,849	2,161,816	316,923	3,162,393	209,514,733
1891.....	728,120	2,218,911	6,300,926	1,782,950	2,202,102	244,319	3,685,842	211,762,420
1892.....	573,244	2,503,963	7,638,846	1,905,346	3,300,108	193,033	5,168,657	230,942,318
1893.....	1,268,551	3,247,903	7,390,377	2,099,356	2,766,712	258,464	4,465,666	240,269,382

These figures evidence a state of things which cannot fail to induce a hearty belief in the country's future. Some years ago a writer in the London *Statist* made the following forecast:—

"Nothing can prevent the traffic of the 'Soo' from going eastward through Canada. And a great deal of traffic now making a *detour* south to Chicago, will in future take the straight road to Montreal. By the 'Soo' from St. Paul or Minneapolis to the St. Lawrence will be four or five hundred miles shorter than to New York. Moreover, the St. Lawrence is another several hundred miles nearer Liverpool than New York. . . . It (Montreal) has a chance before it such as history offers to a people only once in centuries."

And if the foregoing can be said of the commercial metropolis of any country, that the country's prospects are magnificent must be granted.

The following is a comparative statement (by Provinces) showing the value of Exports, of Total Imports, and of Imports entered for Consumption, in the Dominion of Canada, during the fiscal years ended respectively on the 30th of June, 1891, 1892, and 1893:—

Provinces.	Fiscal Year ended 30th June, 1891.		Fiscal Year ending 30th June, 1892.			Fiscal Year ending 30th June, 1894.		
	Total Exports.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Total Imports.	Entered for Consumption.	Total Exports.	Total Imports.	Entered for Consumption.
Ontario.....	\$28,926,642	\$43,227,656	\$32,593,392	\$45,962,291	\$45,218,105	\$33,850,873	\$48,243,756	\$47,648,881
Quebec.....	43,216,936	52,220,528	54,329,364	56,239,869	46,677,118	58,655,427	57,731,111	50,973,569
Nova Scotia.....	9,925,646	9,497,401	10,982,509	9,788,609	10,007,489	10,634,863	9,374,537	9,256,505
New Brunswick.....	7,182,748	5,815,670	6,183,056	5,412,551	5,267,933	7,203,611	5,602,669	5,763,884
Manitoba.....	1,612,124	2,782,599	2,078,339	3,017,140	3,038,443	1,211,077	2,616,419	2,652,488
British Columbia.....	6,199,280	5,477,411	6,574,989	6,358,976	6,137,970	5,641,653	4,918,168	4,810,309
Prince Edward Island.....	1,349,126	623,348	1,128,402	540,286	545,537	1,235,344	470,210	481,811
North-West Territories.....	4,794	313,025	88,324	86,346	86,346	81,504	117,398	117,533
Totals.....	\$98,417,296	\$119,967,638	\$113,963,375	\$127,406,068	\$116,978,943	\$118,564,352	\$129,074,268	\$121,705,030

The quarterly report of the Department of Trade and Commerce, issued November 2nd, 1895, gives the details of the gratifying increase in Canada's trade during the first three months of the financial year ending September 30th, 1895—fiscal year. Our exports of home produce, which, for the same period in 1894, reached \$31,222,168, amounted, during the first quarter of the current year, to \$32,481,642. The live stock

and dairy trade has been the chief gainers by this improvement in business. The figures for the first quarters of 1894 and 1895 are as follows :—

	1894.	1895.
Produce of the Mine.....	\$ 1,515,092	\$ 1,930,432
Produce of the Fisheries.....	3,969,723	3,167,984
Produce of the Forest.....	9,529,695	10,236,515
Animals and their Produce.....	11,646,782	13,294,410
Agricultural Produce.....	2,588,665	1,511,435
Manufacturers.....	1,925,497	2,266,500
Miscellaneous Articles.....	46,709	74,366
	\$ 31,222,163	\$ 32,481,642



HENRY FRANKLIN BRONSON.

Of all the great industries of Canada, interesting alike in their nature and in their brief and triumphant history, none occupies a more important place than that of lumbering. With its rise and progress is intertwined the story of Canadian progress and prosperity. It is pre-eminently the industry with which the national life is blended. The names of the men who created and maintained in its infancy the lumber trade of the new country will ever be household words. Prominent among these stands the name which heads this sketch, the name of the senior member of the firm which in 1853 cut the first lumber for the United States market, in the Ottawa Valley.

The late Henry Franklin Bronson was born in Saratoga County, N.Y., February 24, 1817. His parents were Alvah and Sarah Bronson, and he was, on the paternal side, descended from the earliest settlers of New England. The Bronsons were a good stock, and their descendants to-day hold honorable positions in their native land.

Henry F. Bronson spent his early years at Quinsbury, Warren Co., N.Y., and completed his education at Pultney Academy, Vermont. During these years was towards agriculture, in the theory and practice of

At the age of twenty-lumbering operations in J. Harris, a well-known of N. Y. State. This twenty-four years, during pine lands on the banks of sawmills, thus establishing

In 1848 Mr. Bronson prospecting purposes, and ascended it as far as Ottawa. He was favorably impressed the locality, and the firm in this new field. Thus was traffic now carried on under Weston Lumber Company, to all parts of the world, the wonderful strides which are largely due to the enter-

He married in 1840 N.Y., and had a family of

Although taking no active part in politics, Mr. Bronson always showed a lively interest in all that pertained to education, and was for years the efficient President of the Board of Management of the Ottawa Ladies' College at Ottawa.

He died in 1889, very deeply regretted by a large circle of friends and admirers. His eldest son, the Hon. Erskine Henry Bronson, M.P.P., is now President of the Bronson and Weston Lumber Company, Ltd. He was born at Bolton, N.Y., Sept. 12, 1844, and is a worthy successor to the name and honors of his progenitors.

That the name is worthy, this short record of the life and career of Henry Franklin Bronson suffices to prove. It is a brief memorial of one whose course was marked by that steadfastness of purpose and zealous effort which are inseparable from those whose hearts are in their work; and while his life was not marked by any effort after display or glorification of self, it shed a gracious light abroad in the place and era that knew him.

He ever preserved those principles of honor and integrity which, recognized by his contemporaries, won for him an esteem which, attending him to the close, still endures, and makes of the Bronson name a heritage of which to boast. Long may it continue to descend from a worthy father to a no less honorable son.



three years he commenced partnership with Mr. John farmer and lumber merchant nection was maintained for which they had purchased the Hudson and erected a prosperous business. made a tour of Canada for entering the Ottawa Valley City, then called Bytown. by the business facilities of 1853 commenced operations founded the great lumber the style of the Bronson and the produce of which is sent Indeed, we may safely say Ottawa has made since 1850 prise of Henry F. Bronson. Editha E. Pierce, of Bolton, four.

HORMIDAS LAPORTE.

In the brilliant ranks of Montreal's self-made men, we find no more striking personality than that of the man whose name stands at the head of this sketch. He is the senior member of a commercial house which has, itself, had a remarkable history, having sprung from small beginnings to a prominence which is not only sound and secure, but which speaks volumes for the individuals whose ability and devotion called it into existence.

Mr. Hormidas Laporte, of the firm of Laporte, Martin & Cie., Wholesale Grocers, St. Peter Street, Montreal, was born November 7th, 1850, at Lachine, Que. His parents were Jean Baptiste Laporte and Marie Berthiaume *dit* Jubinville, who, one year after his birth, removed to Sault aux Recollets.

He received his education at the village school, and came, in 1866, to Montreal, where he worked in a nail factory, but zealously attended Moffatt's Night School after each day of labor, thus evincing, at the very outset of his career, the spirit of energy and worthy ambition which has carried him on his successful way.

After four years spent in this way, he yielded to his strong desire to enter into commercial life, and leaving his position in the fact-receiving twelve dollars a clerk in a retail grocery at dollars a month. The issue step, for, having a natural ment, he made so rapid pro-autumn of the same year, cery on his own account.

This business prospered 1881 he sold out and started vision establishment, which that seven years later, he B. A. Martin and Mr. J. O. of 1895 the firm was again of two other partners—Mr. Joseph Ethier—both of firm, the one as accountant man, from the beginning.

It is now twenty-five house was established, and considered in connection romance of daring and good which its affairs are con-element in its phenomenal every detail, big and little, has always been under the control and management of the members of the firm, and the confidence with which they were enabled to inspire the public contributed not a little to their ultimate triumph. They employ, to-day, no less than fifty assistants, and five able and experienced travellers represent on the road the interests of the house. Mr. Laporte has been for years treasurer, president, and warden of the Congregation, and of the different charitable institutions of the parish of St. Joseph. He is Past-President of the Union St. Vincent, and President of the Alliance Nationale (a benevolent society, which has branches all over the province), and Past-Treasurer and President of the Association of St. Jean Baptiste, Section St. Joseph.

Mr. Laporte is a member of the Board of Trade, and of the Wholesale Grocers' Association. He has also been one of the promoters of the Chambre de Commerce of the District of Montreal, and has been in that connection singularly efficient and active. He was for two years Vice-President of the Chamber, and has been President for the past two years. He has been a Director of the Mutual Fire Insurance Company, and since 1895 a Justice of the Peace. He has also been Director of the Merchants' Telephone Company, and of the Washington Building Trust, and Councillor and Mayor of Dorin Village (Vaudreuil Station), where his charming summer residence is situated. He has recently been appointed a Harbor Commissioner.

In politics, Mr. Laporte is a staunch Conservative.

He married, in 1874, Miss Mirza Onesime, daughter of Mr. Pierre Gervais. He has two children.



tory, where he was now week, he took a place as the nominal wages of ten proved the wisdom of this bent for his new employ-gress that, during the he was able to start a gro-

so well in his hands, that in a wholesale grocery and pro-increased so wonderfully, called in as partners Mr. J. Boucher. On the first day augmented by the addition L. A. Delorme and Mr. whom had been with the and the other as chief sales-

years since this flourishing its standing to-day, when with its history, seems a fortune. The manner in ducted has been the chief success. The direction of

JEAN BAPTISTE ALBERT MARTIN.

A PECULIAR interest attaches to such of our prominent and influential citizens who trace their descent from those illustrious French families who peopled the shores of New France. Theirs was the romantic period of French history, when the spirit of chivalry touched and snobled the lives of the leaders, and awakened in the breasts of all an ardent devotion to public interests difficult to find to-day.

The attitude of the settlers towards the savages among whom they had come to dwell, was that of high-souled and self-denying philanthropists. Even the military partook of this spirit, and only in most necessary self-defence was a weapon raised against the Red-Men, upon whom their kindly and benevolent treatment exerted a wholesome influence.

The great international changes which affected Europe and reached nearly across the Atlantic, wrested the Land of the Maple Leaf from the domination of France, led to the return of that chivalrous and high-souled colony to their native land. A few remained, and in them we are to-day pleased to recognize signs of their lineage, evidenced by a high-spirited devotion to any cause they espouse; by a firmly-strung organization, fitting them pre-eminently for the distinguished positions which, from time to time, these descendants of a heroic race are called to their descent, these French-
so.

Mr. Jean Baptiste Al-Laporte, Martin and Com-Montreal, is a descendant of such as we have referred of a chivalrous race are His parents were Jean Bap-Rabeau. In the Dictionaire their lineage is given, and settled in this New World

The subject of our at St. Genevieve, Jacques-ed his primary education at later to the English school the Christian Brothers'

He commenced busi-ri-er, but three months later, parish, took a position in of Mr. G. G. Gaucher.

In 1868, we find him entered then the Wholesale has followed ever since. He

Messrs. Gaucher and Telmosse, and Mr. L. O. Turgeon. He has been also, for thirteen years, accountant and manager for the firm now known as N. Quintal and Son.

In 1888, Mr. Martin joined Mr. Laporte to form the present partnership with him.

Mr. Martin has been a member of the Montreal Board of Trade since 1887, and of the Chamber of Commerce of the District of Montreal since 1888. Notwithstanding the engrossing cares of his business life, the wideness of his sympathies and breadth of his tastes are evidenced by the frequency with which his name is associated with institutions of many kinds. He is a Life Member of the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association. He has been a Lieutenant in the 65th Battalion, and obtained a Second and First-Class Certificate. He is likewise a member of many of the leading and benevolent societies of Montreal, being President of Union St. Joseph and Vice President of the Société des Artisans Canadiens Français, and President of the Association St. Jean-Baptiste of St. Joseph Section.

In politics Mr. Martin is a Liberal. He belongs to the Roman Catholic Church.

It is interesting to note that Mr. Martin has been all his life a devoted student, fluding in his well-selected library his truest enjoyment.

He was first married in 1871, to Julia Gagnon, who died in 1878, and he married a second time in 1880, Marie Eleonore Elmina, daughter of Joseph Darveau, Esq., of Quebec. His family consists of three sons and three daughters.



bert Martin, of the firm of pany, Wholesale Grocers, an ancient French family to, and in him the instincts more than usually apparent. tiste Martin and Adeline Genealogique (Tanguay) we learn that their ancestors in 1688.

sketch was born in 1850, Cartier County, and receive the village school, passing at Lachine, and finally to school in Montreal.

ness in 1864, as parcel car-returning to his native the business establishment

again in Montreal. He Grocery business, which he has been alternately with

MONTREAL ROLLING MILLS COMPANY.

To the observer of the great commercial and industrial interests of Montreal the enterprising firm whose name stands at the head of this article, offers peculiar attractions. In its history, its advanced methods, and the ingenuity everywhere apparent in its practical workings, it affords a pleasing illustration of the evolution of handicraft. It is well known that ingenious machinery has well-nigh revolutionized the once intricate work of the carpenter, and the iron and brass founder, and that to-day only the simplest part of the trade is left for manual labor. Applied science has wrought an all but incredible change in the handling and manipulating of metal. Cast iron did not come into commercial use before 1700, the method being discovered at that date by a Welsh boy, received a short time before into a brass foundry in Bristol, England. The process was for more than a hundred years kept secret, with plugged keyholes and barred doors. A marked contrast to even a much later period is afforded by the milling conditions of the present time, where handy, effective and efficient machinery, and the use of various labor-saving contrivances, and arrangements for ventilating and cooling the workshops, testify to the knowledge, skill and talent which have been brought to bear upon this important industry.

As an instance of the progress of Iron Milling in recent years, the Montreal Rolling Mills Company stands at the head of the list. It is in every sense of the word a representative firm. Up-to-date, thorough, honorable and enterprising, it is a corporation of which the Canadian metropolis may well be proud.

The Company was organized and Letters Patent granted by the Government of the Province of Quebec, April 14, 1868. The enterprise started with a capital of \$300,000. The Provincial Directors were: Hugh Allan, Edward M. Hopkins, Charles John Brydges, George Stephen, Thomas Reynolds, Gordon Mackenzie, Thomas Morland. These were all Montreal citizens, men enjoying the confidence of the public, and whose recognized worth rendered them peculiarly fitted to give to the undertaking from the first an undoubted position in popular esteem.

The Works were originally built about 1857, eleven years earlier than the Company's formation. Subsequently the Rolling Mill, Nail Factory and Lead Works belonging to the firm of Messrs. Morland, Watson & Co. was acquired by the Company, together with its products of the goods manufactured, consisting of Bar Iron, Nail Plate, Cut Nails, White Lead, Shot, Lead-pipe and Putty.

The premises were at once extended, and the business pushed with characteristic vigor. The manufacture of other goods was added as the years passed, and at the present time we have an immense and imposing establishment, consisting of three Rolling Mills, being one 18" mill, one 12" mill, and one 9" mill; The Horse Shoe Factory; The Horse Nail Works; a Pipe Mill for the manufacture of gas, water and steam pipe; a Wire Mill for the manufacture of Iron and Brass Wire; The Tack Works; The Lead Works, Shot Tower and Wire Nail Factory.

The Company employ five hundred persons. Their capital is \$475,000.

Some idea of the extent of their operations may be gathered from the fact that the coal used amounts to 20,000 tons. The works are situated in the Municipality of St. Cuneconde, on the Lachine Canal. Their Central office is in the Works. Other offices are:—General, at 3080 Notre Dame Street West (in the Works); and the City Office, Room 65, Temple Building. They have also an office at 18 Front Street West, Toronto, Ont.

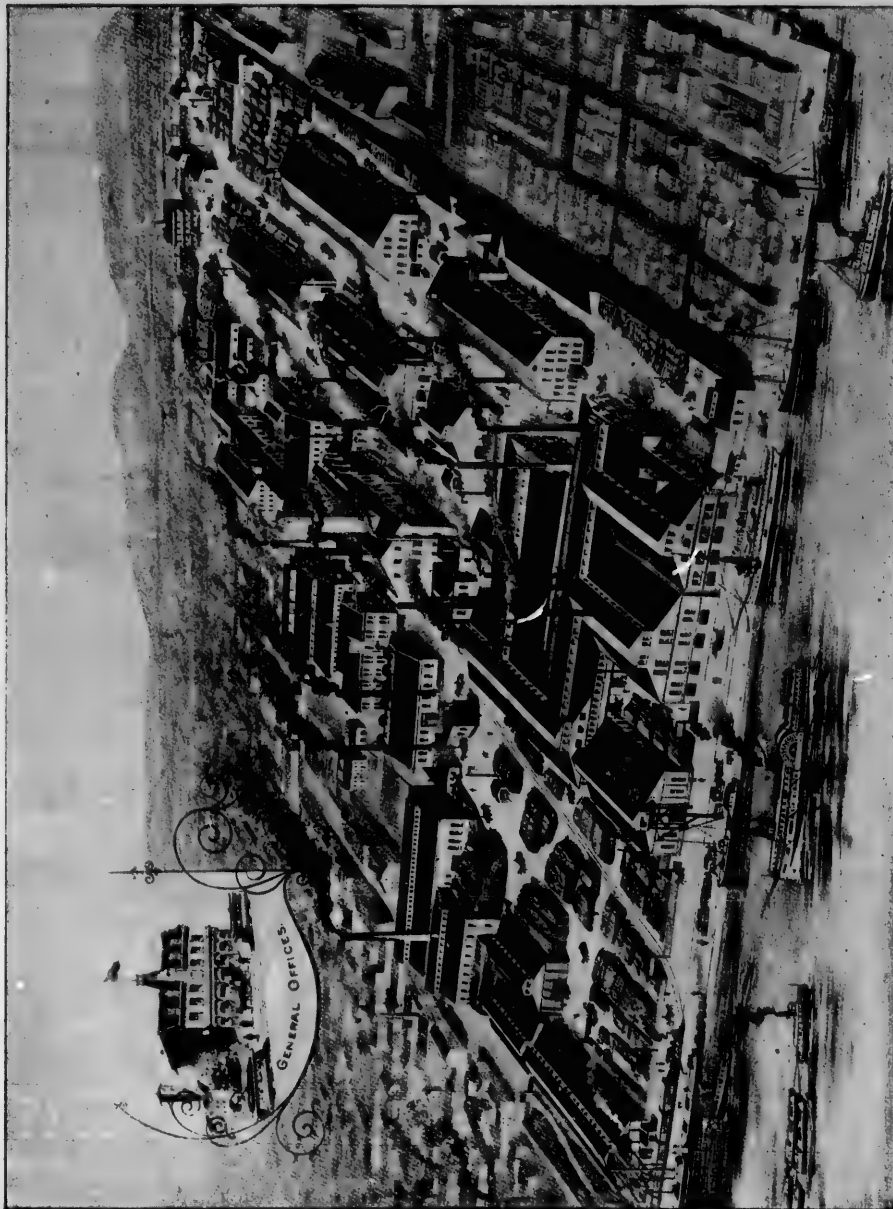
The present officers of the Company are:—Andrew Allan, President; Hugh McLennan, Vice-President; Hon. Geo. A. Drummond, E. S. Clouston, Henry Archibald, H. Montagu Allan; William McMaster, Managing Director. These gentlemen form the Board of Directors. A. D. Macpherson is Secretary and Treasurer.

The Company employ as Selling Agents:—James Crawford, Victoria and Vancouver, B.C.; John Peters & Co., Halifax, N.S.; and W. D. Taylor, Winnipeg, Man.

All the connections of this House are of the most influential character. It stands in the front rank, and enjoys a prosperity and maintains a reputation second to none in the Dominion. The importance of the firm to the manufacturing interests of the city cannot be overstated.



The above trade mark is used on all articles manufactured by the Montreal Rolling Mills Co.



MONTREAL ROLLING MILLS.

FREE TRADE.

FREE TRADE.* BY HON. JOHN G. CARLISLE.

MR. President, and Gentlemen of the Club :—I would be cold indeed if I were not profoundly grateful for this very friendly reception. It is so much more than I expected or had any right to expect, that I feel myself wholly unable to express my appreciation of it. I am obliged to you also for the opportunity to say a few words in response to the toast which is announced. Although, of course, it will be impossible under the circumstances to do justice to the subject, and perhaps I shall not confine myself very closely to it. Certainly I shall not attempt to do more than call your attention to one or two of the most conspicuous advantages conferred upon the American people by the Union established in 1789.

THE FORMATION OF THE UNION.

The formation of that Union, peaceable and voluntary, under a Constitution which made such radical changes in the relations previously existing between the several States themselves and between them and the General Government, was undoubtedly one of the greatest political achievements of modern times. It is difficult to say which is the more entitled to our admiration, the statemanship of the men who framed the Constitution, or the patriotism and intelligence of the people of the several States who ratified it and made it for themselves and posterity the supreme law of the land. It is, I think, safe to assert that in no other part of the world could such a fundamental change have been so peaceably made at that time, and perhaps it is equally safe to say that it could not have been made here twenty or thirty years later. Why and how this Union was formed are historical questions which it would be superfluous and, in fact, impossible to discuss upon this occasion. What benefits, what advantages it has yielded or conferred upon us, how its bonds shall be strengthened and the prosperity of all its parts increased and perpetuated, are questions which challenge our attention constantly.

"THE SKELETON OF A GOVERNMENT."

The old confederation possessed no means of sustaining itself. In fact, it was but a skeleton of a government. It had no power to impose taxes or to regulate commerce or to administer justice. It had but one of the essential departments of a real government—the Legislature—and even that was defective and almost impotent. Each State had the right to lay imposts and duties subject only to the condition that they should not interfere with treaties entered into by the United States, in Congress assembled, with foreign kings, princes, or States. There was no limitation whatever upon the power of any State to impose duties upon the products of any other American State brought within its limits for sale or consumption. For the purpose of raising a revenue or for the purpose of encouraging its own domestic manufactures the State of New York had full power to impose any rate of duty it might see fit to establish upon the products of New Jersey, and the State of New Jersey possessed the same power in respect to the products of New York. If the doctrine of protection is what its friends claim, if its application to infant industries in new States enables them to overcome natural disadvantages and to secure a higher degree of prosperity than would otherwise be attainable, it must be admitted that the arrangement existing under the confederation was a wise one and ought never to have been disturbed.

THE "FATHERS" WERE FREE TRADERS.

But, gentlemen, the framers of the Constitution, the men who founded this Federal Union, did not think so. They believed that free trade—absolute free trade between the several States was imperatively demanded by the interests of the people. And accordingly they adopted this provision as a part of the Constitution without a single dissenting vote :

* The banquet of the Free Trade Club in New York, March 15, 1884.

"No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties upon imports or exports except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws, and the net proceeds of all duties or imposts levied by any State on imports or exports shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and Control of Congress."

It is true that Mr. George Clymer of Pennsylvania, said in the Convention while this subject was under consideration that "if the States have such different interests that they cannot be left to regulate their own affairs without encountering the interest of other States, it is proof that they are not fit to compose one nation." But he stood substantially alone in his opposition to this provision, and when the vote was taken not a single State was recorded against it.

CONSTITUTIONAL ORIGIN OF FREE TRADE.

Thus free trade was established by the Constitution, not only between the States then existing, but between all the States that might thereafter exist as members of the federal Union—and I venture to believe, my friends, that the most ardent advocate of the protective system will admit that the wonderful growth and prosperity of this country are attributable to this provision more largely than to any other one thing. With free commercial intercourse between the States our own internal commerce has steadily and rapidly grown until it amounts to thousands of millions of dollars; more than one hundred and twenty thousand miles of railroad have been constructed, over which almost innumerable trains are constantly passing, carrying manufactured and other articles of commerce from State to State, while our great waterways are crowded with steamers and barges and other craft laden with the products of every part of the Union. The markets of New York are free as the markets of Philadelphia to the iron and steel and coal of Pennsylvania; as free as the markets of Savannah or Mobile or Charleston for the cotton and the fruits of the South.

THE RIVAL POLICIES ILLUSTRATED.

What a different picture this country presents from what it would have presented if the policy of restriction and protection had prevailed among the States as it has prevailed for so many years between the United States and foreign nations. Under the liberal policy established by the Constitution our means of internal communication and transportation have increased and are still increasing, while under the restrictive and obstructive policy of Congress our merchant marine, once the source of pride and profit, has almost disappeared from the seas, and unless something can be done to arrest its further decline it will disappear entirely. Free commercial intercourse between the States has increased trade, promoted the development of our resources, fostered agriculture and manufactures, and added untold millions to the wealth of the people; while the protective system maintained by Congressional legislation has, to a large extent at least, shut us out from the markets of the outside world, limited production substantially to the demands of home consumption, and in many cases actually arrested the development of great industrial interest. Under this system, when any highly protected manufacturing industry has reached a stage of development which enables it to supply the home demand its growth must virtually cease because its products can have access to no other market.

ABUSE OF THE POWER OF TAXATION.

The Constitution not only prohibited the States from laying imposts or duties upon imports or exports, but it expressly delegated to Congress the power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises to pay its debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare. This is simply the power to raise revenue for public purposes. It is wholly separate and distinct from the power to regulate commerce between the United States and foreign nations and among the several States and with the various Indian tribes, which is conferred by another clause of the Constitution. The two powers were delegated for entirely different purposes; and it is a monstrous abuse of the power of taxation to use it, not for the purpose of raising revenue, but for the purpose of regulating or prohibiting commerce. It is, if possible, a still greater abuse of that power to employ it for private instead of public purposes.

MR. CARLISLE'S PRECISE ATTITUDE.

Let no one, I pray you, misunderstand me upon this point. The experience of mankind has shown that it is almost, if not quite, impossible to devise any system or scheme of duties upon imports that will not to a greater or less degree either injure or benefit private industrial interests, and I have never hesitated to say that I would rather benefit them than injure them; but what I mean to assert is that when the primary or principal object of the tax imposed by public authority is to foster a private interest it is not a legitimate use of the

power of taxation, but is simply spoliation. Whether what is called protection, direct or incidental, is or is not, really beneficial to protect industry is a question about which I imagine there will never be anything like perfect unanimity of opinion. But whatever may be our opinions upon that question, most of us will agree, I think, that there may be conditions under which it might not be wise to make a sudden change, even from a bad policy to a good one.

NEED OF CONSERVATIVE ACTION.

When manufacturing interests have grown up under a high protective system, and in a series of years have adjusted themselves to it, and when those engaged in them have become accustomed to rely upon the bounty of the Government for support, it might be injurious and even disastrous to them to suddenly repeal or greatly reduce the duties. Such a course would seriously alarm many who have employed their capital in these enterprises, and when capital is really alarmed, even though it be without cause, the result, for the time being at least, is the same as if there were really danger. For these reasons, if there were no others, it has always been my opinion that it is the duty of Congress to proceed carefully and conservatively in its legislation on this subject—having due regard to every step to the large interest involved. In other words, I am in favor of a reformation, not a revolution. But, Mr. President, this process of reformation must go on until the power of taxation is used only for proper purposes. There must be no step backward—nor any deviation from correct principle and sound policy. As I have already briefly intimated, this federal union is a commercial as well as a political one. Politically we are free; commercially we are not.

A STRANGE PERVERSION OF PRINCIPLES.

When our ancestors determined to rebel against the British system of government in America one of the principal causes alleged in the Declaration of Independence was that it had cut off their trade with all parts of the world. It is not strange, my friends, that the Government established over this people by the same men will persist in the maintenance of a policy which must ultimately produce substantially the same result—namely, the cutting off of our trade with all parts of the world? Let us see to it the foundation for such an accusation against the Government of the Union is remarked as speedily as circumstances will admit. Taxation only for the purpose of raising revenue for the public use; commercial regulation in time of peace, only for purposes of protecting and fostering legitimate trade, will strengthen the Union, insure the prosperity of the people, and perpetuate the system of Government under which we live.

For myself, Mr. Chairman, I will cheerfully co-operate with all men and all organizations, by whatever name they may be known, in all proper efforts to bring about this grand result.



DR. E. J. C. KENNEDY.

THE spectacle of a young man who, in his youthful prime, attains to that dignity and importance which are usually the privilege of honored old age, arrests at once the consideration of the observer. A single generation ago such a reversal of the ordinary conditions of things would have been impossible. College and society conspired together against the too speedy intrusion of brilliant youth into the foreground of life's panorama. He must serve an apprenticeship, no matter what his equipment, and in all humility stand waiting until his seniors, "weary with the march of life," fell from the ranks. Then, only, might he venture to declare his years of patient service, and, pointing to the silver threads appearing upon his own head, move forward to take his place among the leaders.

All this is changed, and youth is now encouraged to the front, in recognition of the fact that in his own inexperience and diffidence, the beginner has enough to battle against. We know, to-day, that the flame of a noble ambition is too readily extinguished, and that the natural disabilities of youth are damper sufficient to an undue presumption. Instances of genius and worth, crowned early with success, must, in the nature of things, be rare.

Perhaps it would be illustration of the esteem merit, as soon as it is recognized the brilliant, though as yet of this sketch. Dr. Kennedy has already obtained some upon success, and men and early education.

Edward J. C. Kennedy Montreal, September 18th, Edward Henry Kennedy received his classical education, studying medicine at he graduated with distinction appointed House Physician to the Asylum, which position he held in September of the same year where he spent a year under Potain. Still bent on the same, he betook himself next to the University of Berlin, in perfecting his knowledge of pathology in the laboratories of professors Koch and Virchow.



difficult to find a happier so universally accorded to nized, than that afforded by brief, career of the subject nedy is a young man who of the honors that wait quire regarding his origin

was born in the city of 1866. His parents were and Joanna Conroy. He tion at the Montreal Col-Victoria University, whence tion in 1889. He was at sician to the Longue Point ion, however, he resigned year, going over to France, Professors Charcot and study of his chosen profes- to Germany, and entered where he devoted two years of Pathology and Bacteri- the eminent scientists, Pro-

Whilst in Berlin he was active, with others, in organizing the American Medical Society, of which he was made vice-president.

In the autumn of 1892 Dr. Kennedy entered the Royal Saxon Hospital at Dresden, taking the position of "Interne"-Assistant to Professor Sepold.

The spring of 1893 saw him once more in his native city, thrice welcome, after his prolonged absence. The fame of his successes abroad had preceded him, and his large and lucrative practice attests the confidence which he has inspired, and the kindness with which he is regarded.

Dr. Kennedy is attending physician in the Hotel Dieu Hospital. The doctor is connected with several national and fraternal organizations, among which are St. Patrick's Society, of which he is Vice-President; the Ancient Order of United Workmen; and the Ancient Order of Hibernians. In each and all of these he is held in the highest esteem, as an influential and leading spirit. That he is no stranger to patriotic sentiment is evidenced by the hearty zeal which he invariably displays when the interests of these, and similar societies are at stake.

His pursuits are thus multiform, and that he can spare time from the arduous duties of his professional life, testifies to the rare energy and untiring zeal which crown his noble character.

He is a hearty co-worker with all who band themselves together for the advancement in any way of race or class. Dr. Kennedy is emphatically a public-spirited citizen.

JAMES COCHRANE.

THERE is no better known name in Montreal than that of James Cochrane, esteemed not only as an exceptionally able and highly successful man of business, but as a public-spirited and high-souled citizen, whose liberal sentiments and just views are in truest harmony with the spirit of this progressive age. He is one of the self-made men of whom the country is proud to-day, and to whose energy, ambition, and talents, so much of Canadian prosperity is owing.

By birth and parentage he is Scotch, a native of Kincardine, Perthshire, Scotland. He was born in 1850, and came at a very early age to this country with his parents, settling in Montreal. He was educated first at the old "British and Canadian School," in the vicinity of Dufferin Square, and later at the Montreal Collegiate School, conducted by the late Mr. Charles Nichols, L.R.C.P.

He commenced life in the employ of the Montreal Telegraph Company, rising rapidly by dint of hard work to the position of night manager and chief operator, which post he occupied for a number of years, subsequently holding similar positions in Whitehall, N.Y., Malone, N.Y., Boston, Mass., and many other prominent American cities, as well as at nearly every important point in Canada, including Cape Sydney, C.B. After gaining experience during this apprenticeship, graphy, and engaged under in the construction of the later, worked on the famous M. J. Haney. In this life, dant room for exercise. He enterprising in all that he everywhere a golden record. belongs of having conline through the woods on Superior, between Nepigon Ross, the manager of cons-Pacific Railway Company. an important service to all the troops across the Rebellion, receiving, in resistance, a letter of thanks that day.

Upon his return to of prosperity in the West, tions as a contractor. Much comfort of the city streets of the methods and materials filling the contracts assumed by him. He introduced the Sicilian Rock Asphalt, and has laid over fifteen miles in length. The heavy rock work in St. Jean-Baptiste Ward was nearly all done by him. A company, of which he is vice-president, has been organized to control the business of asphalt paving.

Mr. Cochrane has ever been distinguished by the lively interest he feels in all that pertains to the labour question, evincing this by the practical assistance frequently rendered by him in the furtherance of schemes which have for their object the advancement of the cause of the working man. He is a strong friend of the struggling sons of toil. He was one of the directors of the weekly labour paper, "The Canadian Workman," was vice-president of the Trades and Labour Council, and was three times elected Master Workman of Warren Assembly, Knights of Labour, in Montreal.

In politics he is a sturdy Liberal, and has done great service in organization in the Province of Quebec. At the last general elections he opposed Sir Donald Smith for the Division of Montreal-West, but was defeated. His coming forward was due to the importunities of friends, and evidenced the high esteem in which he is held by the hosts of friends and admirers, whom he has unconsciously attached to himself in the course of an exceptionally busy life. He is a governor of the Montreal General and Notre-Dame Hospitals, and of the Protestant Insane Asylum.

Mr. Cochrane was married November 24, 1892, to Katherine Manefield, daughter of the late P. Manefield, Esq., of Montreal.



and knowledge of the world he finally abandoned telethe late John J. MacDonald, Intercolonial Railway. He, Contract Fifteen under Mr. his rare abilities had abunwas prompt, energetic, and did, leaving behind him To Mr. Cochrane the credit structed the first telegraph the north shore of Lake and Dog Lake, for John struction for the Canadian About this time he rendered the country by convoying Gaps during the Nort-West cognition of this valuable from the government of

Montreal, after many years he began extensive opera- of the present beauty and is owing to the superiority used by Mr. Cochrane in

EDOUARD OCTAVE CHAMPAGNE.

A MARKED success in any business calling evidences the possession of ready tact and energy, as well as of that degree of mental superiority that enables a man in this age of excessive competition to achieve for himself place and distinction. That Montreal counts among her citizens a goodly number whose triumph has proved their possession of no ordinary qualifications, needs no assertion. The present importance of our metropolitan city speaks the worth of the men whose gifts and industry have made it chief in the Dominion. But among those who in every city form the influential and successful class, there must ever be some individuals destined to shine not only in the arena of commercial or professional life, but in those circles where the favored are supposed to be endowed rather with the higher graces and accomplishments that find favor in the gay world. Of such the subject of this sketch, Mr. Edouard Octave Champagne, is a striking instance.

In his own calling he has achieved rare distinction; he is recognized as able, astute, and energetic beyond the ordinary, while his social gifts render him a companion to be courted. Mr. Champagne is a practical engineer, and holds to-day the responsible position of Boiler Inspector of the City of Montreal, and Examiner of persons seeking employment under his surveillance. It quiring painstaking care committed to his charge nently fitted.

It is a grave, and we tion, a prosaic work in it is therefore with a natu- ger learns that Mr. Cham- He is acknowledged, on all marksmen, and is, in fact, Dominion.

Mr. Champagne was forty-six years of age. He the Christian Brothers in menced his business career

In 1872 he obtained a chanical Engineering, be- dian who had sought and since the commencement of

Mr. Champagne is Pre- Boiler Inspectors of the

Among the experts em- fire-engines and pumps in

Champagne is chief. He was responsible during the trial of the Worthington pumps with a capacity of fifteen million gallons, the first engine of the kind used in the city.

He gained the prize given by the Club de Chasse et de Pêche du Chenal du Moine at the inauguration of their Club House; the money prize, given by Mr. Costen, for the best marksman of the Province; also another prize, given by the Association of Mechanical Engineers, for the best snap shot. Mr. Champagne's career as a steamboat engineer extends over a period of fourteen years, during which time he ploughed through the waters of the St. Lawrence, Ottawa and Richelieu Rivers, Lake Champlain and the Upper Lakes, and two seasons on the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Traveling over such varied and beautiful waters and hunting grounds must have contributed largely towards making Mr. Champagne the sport and skilful marksman that he is. Enough has been said to prove Mr. Champagne to be a man of varied talents. He possesses a vigor of character, a consideration for others, and a sound judgment that render him well fitted to succeed in whatever line he undertakes. That the character of the subject of this sketch is possessed of a grave side is evidenced by his superior ability when the serious details of business are under discussion. Then no counsel can be more carefully given nor respectfully heeded than that of Mr. Champagne. Upon a great occasion he can rise to a high level. His intellectual vision is keen, and his views broad.

He enjoys a great popularity, and his presence is equally welcomed in the gathering of business men met for discussion of grave subjects, and in the lighter circles, whose aim is amusement and recreation.



might say, in this connec- which he is engaged, and ral surprise that the stran- pagne is a noted sportsman. hands to be a first-class the best snap shot in the

born at Sorel, and is now received his education from his native town, and com- in 1865.

first-class certificate of Me- ing the first French-Cana- obtained that distinction, the Department in 1859. sident of the Association of United States and Canada. ployed in trying and testing the City of Montreal, Mr.

THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE.

THIS Department of the Government is presided over by the Hon. Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, the Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada. The superintendence of all matters connected with the administration of justice in Canada, and not coming within the jurisdiction of the provincial authorities, belongs to the Department. Its grave import is manifest, and the ability and right-mindedness which have heretofore characterized its management are signally matter for public satisfaction.

The duties which belong to the office of Minister of Justice are many and arduous. He is the legal adviser of the Governor-General and the legal adviser of the Privy Council. For the office, Sir Charles H. Tupper has peculiar qualifications. He is a lawyer by profession, and was appointed a Q.C. in 1890. In May, 1888, he accepted the portfolio of Minister of Marine and Fisheries, and was transferred to his present office on December 21st, 1894.

It falls within the province of the Minister of Justice to advise upon the Legislation Acts and proceedings of the several Provincial Legislatures, and generally on all matters referred to him by the Crown and the other Departments of Government.

He also performs the duties appertaining to the office of Attorney-General in England, in so far as the same apply to Canada, while the duties formerly belonging to the Attorneys-General of the several provinces previous to Confederation, in so far as they relate to matters properly within Dominion jurisdiction, are performed by him. He advises the heads of the several Departments of Government on all matters of Law connected with such Departments; and he is charged with the settlement and approval of instruments under the Great Seal of Canada.

To the Minister of Justice belongs the serious and oft-times painful duty of advising upon the exercise of the prerogative of clemency.

The principal officers of the Department are as follows:—

Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada—Hon. Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, K.C.M.G., Q.C., M.P.

Solicitor-General, vacant—Vice Hon. J. J. Curran, Dec. 1st., 1895.

Deputy Minister—Edmund Leslie Newcombe, B.A., Q.C.

Chief Clerks—Augustus Power, Q.C., and G. L. B. Fraser, B.A., Barrister.

Minister's Private Secretary—W. C. Gordon.

Inspector of Penitentiaries—D. Stewart.

Accountant of Penitentiaries—Geo. L. Foster.

Commissioner of Police—A. P. Sherwood.

Reg'istrar of Supreme Court—R. Cassels.

Reg'istrar of Exchequer Court—L. A. Audette.

It will be observed that the administration of the Penitentiaries of the Dominion devolves upon the Department.

There are five penitentiaries in the Dominion, and figures show that the convict population has, during recent years, been diminishing, the actual average having gradually declined in almost every penitentiary. A few years ago the Inspector of Penitentiaries said:—

"It is an evidence of the general prosperity of the Dominion, because, in times of depression and financial stringency, it is found that the percentage of criminals who reach the penitentiaries—to the general population—is considerably larger than when labor, industry, and enterprise are successful, and plentiful crops reward the toil of the husbandman."

The five penitentiaries of the Dominion are situated at Kingston, Ont.; St. Vincent de Paul, Montreal, Que.; Dorchester, N.B.; Stony Mountain, Man.; and New Westminster, B.C. The total number of persons confined in these penitentiaries on the 30th June, 1893, was 1,194, of whom 1,160 were males, and 34 were females.

By three year periods, the following is the average of convicts in the Penitentiaries during a space of a dozen years :—

Period.	Average Number.	Average of Females.
1881-83	1163	32
1884-86	1126	41
1887-89	1149	26
1890-92	1243	34
1893	1194	34

The following table shows the number of prisoners in the common jails and prisons under provincial jurisdiction, at the dates mentioned :—

PERSONS CONFINED IN PROVINCIAL PRISONS IN CANADA, 1893.

Provinces.	Number of Jails.	Date.	Number Confined.		Total.
			Males.	Females.	
Ontario	54	Sept. 30, 1893.	689	250	939
Quebec	24	Dec. 31, 1893.	368	199	567
Nova Scotia	33	June 30, 1893.	138	6	144
New Brunswick	14	" 30, 1893.	71	8	79
Manitoba	3	Dec. 31, 1892.	107	9	116
British Columbia	4	Oct. 31, 1892.	144
Prince Edward Island	3	June 30, 1892.	20	4	24
The Territories (K. M. I.)	1	" 30, 1893.	14	2	16

Considered in relation to the growth of population, the following table shows that in every group of 4155 persons, one was in the Penitentiary in 1893. This shows a decrease from the average of the period 1881-93, which was one convict to every 3965 persons :—

PROPORTION OF CONVICTS TO POPULATION, 1881-93.

1881	one in 3560 persons.
1882	" 3886 "
1883	" 3882 "
1884	" 4204 "
1885	" 4082 "
1886	" 3824 "
1887	" 4002 "
1888	" 4285 "
1889	" 3966 "
1890	" 3831 "
1891	" 3881 "
1892	" 3993 "
1893	" 4155 "
Average	3965

THE AMES-HOLDEN COMPANY, L^{TD}.

REPRESENTATIVE among the leading firms of Montreal is that well-known and long-established house which forms the subject of this sketch. It, in fact, enjoys the distinction of being the oldest established concern of the kind in Canada. The manufacture of boots and shoes is an important and leading industry in Montreal, and many firms have been formed in connection with it, but among them the Ames-Holden Company takes a foremost place. The business was originally founded in 1853, and then assumed the name and style of Childs, Scholes, and Ames, which a little later became Ames, Millard and Co. In 1871, Mr. Millard having sold out to Mr. J. C. Holden, the firm became known as Ames, Holden and Co. In 1893 another change occurred, Mr. J. C. Holden purchasing Mr. Ames' interest in the business, and becoming sole proprietor. Just one year after, The Ames-Holden Company, Limited, was formed, with a paid-up capital of \$600,000, in 6,000 shares of \$100 each.

During the long years of its history the business has steadily increased, its trade reaching to all parts of the Dominion, while the members of the firm have ever held a high place in popular estimation. And deservedly so, their reputation for integrity, honor, and public-spiritedness being abundantly attested by the esteem accorded them in the city in which the business took its rise.

Their premises in Montreal are situated upon Victoria Square. Their handsome stone structure occupies half a block. It is fitted up with the latest and best mechanical appliances. The daily output is very great, the superiority of their goods being widely acknowledged, and the demand for them constantly growing.

They have branch houses at Toronto, Ont., Winnipeg, Man., Victoria, B.C., and Vancouver, B.C.

Besides the manufacture of and trade in boots and shoes, The Ames-Holden Co. are sole sales agents for the Granby Rubber Company, whose goods, manufactured at their large factories in Granby, Que., are justly celebrated. The facilities for carrying on the business of this house were never greater than to-day, when, indeed, they may be considered, in some regards, unique.

The officers of the company are: President and General Manager, Mr. J. C. Holden; Vice-President, Mr. James Redmond; Secretary, Mr. W. A. Matley; and Treasurer, Mr. R. C. Holden.

THE DEPARTMENT OF RAILWAYS AND CANALS.

SOME idea of the magnitude of this Department of the Government may be gathered from consideration of the number and extent of the Railways in which the Dominion Government has vast interests. When, in addition to this, we remember that the Canal System of Canada is the most magnificent in the world, the immense importance of the Department, presided over by the Hon. J. G. Haggart, becomes apparent.

It was in the year 1879 that the Department of Railways and Canals was constituted, under an Act passed in that year, the old Department of Public Works being divided.

The principal officers of the Department are as follows:—

Minister—Hon. John G. Haggart.

Deputy of the Minister, Chief Engineer of Railways and Canals, Secretary of the Railway Committee, P.C.—Collingwood Schreiber, C.E., C.M.G.

Secretary—John H. Balderson.

Law Clerk—R. Doull.

General Manager Government Railways—David Pottinger.

Chief Clerk Railway Branch, and Secretary to Deputy Minister—L. K. Jones.

Private Secretary to Minister of Railways and Canals—J. E. W. Currier,

The Hon. John Graham Haggart, M.P., Minister of Railways and Canals, is the son of John Haggart, Esq., formerly of Breadalbane, Perthshire. Scotland, but subsequently of Perth, Lanark, Ont. His mother was Isabella Graham, a native of the Isle of Skye, Scotland. He was born in Perth, Ont., and is an extensive mill-owner. He was for several years Mayor of his native town. He was first returned to Parliament in 1872. He was sworn of the Privy Council, and appointed Postmaster-General in 1888. In January, 1892, he was appointed Minister of Railways and Canals, and has held that portfolio since.

The Government Railways, viz., the Intercolonial and the Prince Edward Island Railway, amount to 1,397 miles. The Intercolonial is the more important of these. At the time of the Confederation of the Provinces, it was felt that these, being widely separated, ought to be united by one vast railway, so that intercourse might be provided. Separate communities were found to be at each extremity of the country, all possessed with the sentiment that they had interests in common, and all owing allegiance to the British Empire. All were willing to be devoted to the Imperial interests in time of danger, and yet all were unable to unite for a common purpose, because means of intercommunication were wanting. It was to meet this want that the Intercolonial Railway was projected, and finally built. It was opened for through traffic between Halifax and Quebec, a distance of 688 miles, in 1874.

The mileage of the Intercolonial Railway System on June 30th, 1894, inclusive of the Prince Edward Island Railway, was 1,383½ miles. The length of the Prince Edward Island Railway is 210½ miles. Included also in the 1,383½ miles is the Windsor Branch, of 32 miles length, leased to the Windsor and Annapolis Railway.

The whole of the main line (1,141 miles) is laid with steel rails.

The Intercolonial line touches six Atlantic ports, viz.:—Pointe du Chene, Pictou, Halifax, Sydney, North Sydney, and Quebec. The following are the through distances:—

	Miles.
Levis (opposite Quebec), via St. Joseph and St. Charles Junction (14 miles) to Halifax	675
Levis to St. John	578
Levis via Truro to Sydney	827
Levis via Truro to North Sydney	820

The following table of statistics gives the financial position of Government Railways in Canada, in 1894 :—

Year.	Capital Paid up.	Earnings.	Expended.	Profits.	Loss.	P.c. of Exp. to Earnings.
Intercolonial.....	\$55,352,741	\$2,987,510	\$2,981,672	\$5,838	99.8
Windsor Branch.....		32,975	17,645	14,330		53.5
Prince Edward Island.....	3,750,505	158,534	226,891	\$68,357	143.1
Total.....	\$59,103,306	\$3,179,019	\$3,226,208	\$21,168	\$47,189	101.4

Besides the maintenance and conduct of the Government Railways, there falls under the control of the Department the supervision and inspection of railways in course of construction under Government subsidy, and the administration of the several provisions of the Railway Act in regard to railways generally ; also, the compilation of Railway Statistics ; and the construction, maintenance, and operation of the Canals of the Dominion. The figures in the following tables are taken from official reports of the Department :—

EARNINGS AND EXPENSES PER MILE OF RAILWAYS IN CANADA.

Year.	Miles open.	Earnings.	Increase or Decrease.	Working Expenses	Increase or Decrease.
1875.....	4,856½	\$4,033	\$3,268
1880.....	6,891½	3,418	— \$615	2,444	— \$824
1885.....	10,150	3,175	— 243	2,356	— 78
1886.....	10,697	3,106	— 69	2,260	— 106
1887.....	11,691	3,332	+ 226	2,363	+ 197
1888.....	12,163	3,405	+ 133	2,520	+ 157
1889.....	12,628	3,338	— 127	2,458	— 62
1890.....	13,256	3,534	+ 196	2,483	+ 25
1891.....	14,009	3,440	— 94	2,495	+ 12
1892.....	14,588	3,543	+ 103	2,501	+ 6
1893.....	15,020	3,405	— 78	2,438	— 63
1894.....	15,627	3,175	— 294	2,254	— 164

The following is a statement of earnings on Canadian Railways during the year 1894 :—

Railways.	Earnings From			Total.	Earnings per Mile.
	Passenger Traffic.	Freight Traffic.	Mails, Express, and other sources.		
Canada Atlantic.....	\$ 130,287	\$ 365,030	\$ 90,853	\$ 586,170	\$ 3,686
Canada Southern.....	1,513,087	2,814,481	166,583	4,494,151	11,797
Canadian Pacific System.....	5,303,629	11,767,626	2,346,843	19,357,098	3,159
Grand Trunk System.....	5,940,773	10,466,542	912,421	17,319,736	5,484
Intercolonial.....	958,915	1,834,126	194,469	2,987,510	2,618
Quebec Central.....	102,144	163,714	12,580	278,438	1,808
Manitoba and North Western.....	45,599	116,231	17,619	79,449	718
South Eastern System.....	123,138	320,481	23,779	467,398	2,325
Other Lines.....	1,334,849	2,194,251	55,478	3,882,578	957
Total.....	\$15,452,421	\$29,982,482	\$4,117,625	\$49,552,628	\$32,551

The River St. Lawrence, with the System of Canals established on its course above Montreal, and the Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Superior, with connecting canals, give a course of water communication extending from the Straits of Belle Isle to Duluth at the head of Lake Superior, making a distance of 2,384 miles, with a depth of water at the shallowest place of about twelve feet. In addition, we have the Montreal, Ottawa, and Kingston Canals, extending from the harbor of Montreal to the port of Kingston, passing through the Lachine Canal, the navigable section of the Lower Ottawa River, and the Ottawa Canals to the City of Ottawa, thence by the River Rideau and the Rideau Canal to Kingston, on Lake Ontario—a total distance of 246 miles; and Richelieu and Lake Champlain Canal, commencing at Sorel, at the confluence of the Rivers St. Lawrence and Richelieu, and extending along the River Richelieu through the St. Our's Lock to the Chambly Basin, thence by the Chambly Canal to St. John's and the River Richelieu to Lake Champlain—a distance of 81 miles; and St. Peter's Canal, Cape Breton, which connects St. Peter's Bay on the southern side of Cape Breton, N.S., with the Bras d'Or Lakes, and crossing an isthmus, gives access from the Atlantic.

The following tables give interesting figures regarding the Canals of Canada :—

ST. LAWRENCE CANALS.

Name.	Length in Miles.	Locks.			
		Number.	Dimensions.	Rise.	Depth on Sill.
			Feet.	Feet.	Feet.
Lachine.....	8½	5	270 by 45	45	{ At 2 locks, 18 3 " 10
Beauharnois.....	11¼	9	200 by 45	82½	9
Cornwall.....	11½	6	200 by 55 (3) 270 by 45 (2)	48	{ At 2 locks, 14 4 " 9
Farran's Point.....	¾	1	200 by 45	4	9
Rapids Plat.....	4	2	200 by 45	11½	9
Gallops.....	7¾	3	200 by 45	15½	9
Welland.....	26¾	25	270 by 45	326¾	14
Welland Branches—					
Welland River Branch.....	¾	2	130 by 26½	10	9 ft. 10 in.
Grand River Feeder.....	21	2	{ 150 by 26½ (1) 200 by 45 (1)	7 to 8	9
Port Maitland Branch.....	1¾	1	185 by 45	7½	11
Sault Ste. Marie.....	¾	1	900 by 60	18	22
Total.....	71	52			

THE OTTAWA AND RIDEAU RIVER SYSTEM.

Name.	Locks.				
	Length in Miles.	Number.	Dimensions.	Rise in Feet.	Depth on Sill.
	Miles.		Feet.	Feet.	Feet.
The St. Anne's Lock.....	¾	1	200 by 45	3	9
Carillon.....	¾	2	200 by 45	16	9
Chute à Blondeau.....	¾				
Grenville.....	5¾	5	200 by 45	43¾	9
Rideau.....	16½	49	134 by 33	282½	5
Perth Branch.....	6	2	134 by 32	26	5½
Total.....	29¾	59			

Connected with the St. Lawrence System are the *Murray Canal*, the *Burlington Bay*, and the *Trent River Navigation*. The first extended through the Isthmus of Murray, giving connection between the head waters of the Bay of Quinté and Lake Ontario. The Burlington Bay Canal is a cutting through a piece of low land which partly separates Lake Ontario from Burlington Bay. The "Trent River Navigation" is a series of water stretches, composed of a chain of Lakes and Rivers, extending from Trenton on the Bay of Quinté to Lake Huron.

The true value of Canadian Railways and Canals the future history of the country will unfold.



THE MONTREAL GAS COMPANY.

A BRIEF sketch of the origin and fortunes of that great corporation whose vast works at Hochelaga are pointed out to the stranger as one of the sights of Montreal, must be full of interest to the reader who would learn of the growth of commercial and manufacturing enterprise in the Dominion of Canada.

The present name and style of the Montreal Gas Company was not assumed until 1879-80, the original company having been incorporated July 20, 1847, as "The New City Gas Company." The charter members at that time were: John Matthewson, Thomas Molson, William Lunn, James Ferrier, David Kinnear, Joseph Savage, George D. Watson, William Molson, William Parkyn, Johnson Thompson, Andrew Dow, George MacDonald, Myers Williams, Carter, Robertson & Co., George Armour, James Scott, Archibald MacFarlane, Canfield Dorwin, Dugald Stuart, Alexander Simpson, Thomas Kay, D. Torrance, T. H. Bryson, John Edy, William T. Murray, Robert Campbell, Alexander Urquhart, and Henry Mulholland.

They commenced business in 1850 with a capital of £25,000 sterling. Three years later, we find that the price of gas was 12½ net per 1,000 cubic feet, and the city lamps £4 10s. per annum each. In 1854, on account of no dividends having been paid during the two previous years, the price was raised to 15/0. It must be remembered that the coal used at this time, and for some years later, was imported from England. In 1855, the price of gas was increased from 15/0 to 17/6, when the number of consumers was 1,222. This increase, however, was not sufficient to prevent a great falling off of revenue, owing to the early closing of shops, a custom not hitherto observed. The gas then manufactured amounted to 31,000,000 feet per annum.

Sir Hugh Allan was the first president of the company, and, in 1856, was succeeded by Mr. Thomas Molson. At this date, gas was first supplied to the other side of the Lachine Canal.

In 1860, there were 587 street lamps, and 2,488 consumers, while the amount of gas manufactured was 48,760,000 cubic feet.

In 1863, the price was reduced to 14/0, and they were paying a dividend of 8 per cent. per annum. In this year, the death of the President, Mr. Thomas Molson, led to the appointment of Mr. Louis Beaudry to the position of managing-director. In the following year, Mr. Jesse Joseph first joined the board of directors, bringing to the young corporation the benefit of his widely acknowledged business ability and experience. A few years later Mr. Louis Beaudry died, and was succeeded by Mr. E. S. Cathells (from England) as gas engineer. The quantity of gas made at this date was 70,634,000 cubic feet.

The number of consumers in 1872 was 4,587. In 1873, the company began to use Cape Breton coal, and in 1874, the price of gas was reduced to \$2.50 net per thousand feet. In 1875, a 9 per cent. dividend was paid, and the capital of the company increased to \$2,000,000. In this year, the Dominion parliament passed an Act to regulate the illuminating power of gas and to provide for the inspection of meters. In 1876, a 10 per cent. dividend was paid. In 1878-79, the price of the gas was reduced to \$2.00 per 1,000 cubic feet, and an application was made for the extension of the charter to enable the company to supply electric light. A great uneasiness was created amongst shareholders by the advent of the electric light. In 1879-80, the style of the company was changed to "The Montreal Gas Company." The dividend at this time was 10 per cent. In 1881-82, the price of gas was reduced to \$1.90. In 1883, the price was reduced to \$1.70 per 1,000 cubic feet, and, in 1885-86, the price was reduced to \$1.50, while the dividend was 12 per cent.

The price of gas fell steadily during ensuing years until, in 1891-92, it was reduced to \$1.30 net, while for heating and cooking (the gas stove having come into use in 1882) it was \$1.00.

Allusion has been made to the works at Hochelaga. The space they occupy is twenty arpents, the coal sheds alone covering several acres. Five miles of steam pipes are laid in the works. Coke, as well as liquid ammonia and tar are bye products the manufacture of which is carried on extensively. The number of hands on the pay rolls is two hundred, their wages often amounting to \$3,000 per week. The works on Ottawa street and at Cote St. Antoine are used for storing gas in the immense holders they contain, the gas being all produced at the Hochelaga works.

Mr. H. S. Holt was elected president in 1894. The present directors are Hugh MacLennan, vice-president, Rbt. Penny, Henry Joseph, J. P. Dawes, Rbt. Mackay, Hector Mackenzie, N. A. Hurteau, and John Crawford.

The authorized capital of the company to-day is \$4,000,000, and the paid-up capital is \$2,997,704. The amount of gas made per annum is nearly 600 millions of cubic feet, the candle power averaging over 20 candles.

Throughout the forty-eight years of its existence, the affairs of the company have been managed by men of unusual talent and business capacity, possessed of progressive ideas, and fully up with the times. To their energy, enterprise, and perseverance, much of the comfort and security of our citizens has been owing during these years. In fighting the prolonged battle against adverse circumstances not always readily apprehended by the majority of on-lookers, they have been in the fullest sense of the word public benefactors.

HON. NATHANIEL CLARKE WALLACE.

THE career of a man who, either of his own choice or owing to some unforeseen and unsought for turn of fortune, comes prominently before the public as a candidate for Parliamentary place or honor, must always possess a keen interest. And not unjustly is this the case; the man who has been able to so command the confidence and esteem of his countrymen, that, with one voice, they bid him to assume the grave responsibility attaching to the position of member of the Legislative Assembly, and by virtue of that office to safeguard and direct their interests, must needs be a man out of the common. His name, his personality, will always demand attention.

No happier instance could be adduced of the wisdom which most usually characterizes the public choice, and justifies the procedure and methods appertaining to a representative form of Government, than that furnished by the public career of the subject of this sketch.

Nathaniel Clarke Wallace, recently member of the Dominion Parliament for West York, was first elected at the General Elections in 1876. He was destined to win an increased popularity, and was re-elected in 1882, 1887, and 1891. He is a Liberal-Conservative. His political life has been arduous and most useful; his influence, steadily grow- ing, has always been ex- orted fearlessly in the sup- port of those principles which he believes to be at the very foundation of Can- ada's future greatness.

Nathaniel C. Wallace N. Wallace, of Woodbridge, Wallace was an Irishman, from Sligo, Ireland, in

The subject of this little sketch was born in Wood- bridge, May 21st, 1844. He received his early education in the Public School in his native town, and afterwards attended the Western Gram- mar School.

In June, 1877, he was married to Belinda, the youngest daughter of the late James Gilmour, Esq., of Ottawa.

Previous to his marriage he was engaged in teaching in the public schools for a few years, entering upon a busi- ness life in 1869. He is to- day an eminently successful merchant and flour miller. He has always been distin- guished as an honorable business man, widely known, and of recognized ability and worth.

From 1874 to 1879 Mr. Wallace was Deputy-Reeve of the Township of Vaughan, and in 1878 he was Warden of the County of York.

He was for many years County Master of the Orangemen of West York, and from 1877 to 1883 he was Grand Treasurer of the Orange Grand Lodge of Ontario. He resigned this position in 1883. He is now Grand Master of the Orangemen of British North America.

He takes a very active interest in agricultural societies, and is President of the York Farmers' Coloniza- tion Company, the operations of which are in the North-West.

Mr. Wallace is widely known for his genial disposition and sterling integrity, and to his possession of these qualities not a little of his success is to be imputed. His experience and knowledge as a public man possess exceptional interest and serve an invaluable purpose in guiding councils of grave import.

Possessed of an active and untiring zeal and an indefatigable spirit, Mr. Wallace has served his country well in the past, and it is not without reason that the public of the great Dominion look to him as to one of the guiding lights through the obscurities and difficulties of the years yet to come.

Patriotism is a sentiment which in this matter-of-fact age is apt to be derided. That this is the case is perhaps owing as much as anything else to the manner in which the sentiment itself has been dragged through the mire by would-be leaders of the people who sought by the avowal of lofty emotion to stir the public pulse. This has not been the manner of Mr. Wallace, and it is to his deed, rather than to his words, that his admirers point when claiming for him the support of those who seek the welfare of their native land.



is the third son of Captain York County, Ont. Capt. and came to this country 1834.

sketch was born in Wood- received his early education native town, and afterwards mar School.

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he was engaged in teaching years, entering upon a busi- day an eminently successful He has always been distin- business man, widely known, and worth.

Wallace was Deputy-Reeve and in 1878 he was Warden

HON. JOHN GRAHAM HAGGART, M.P., P.C.

IN a young country like Canada, whose broad acres are teeming with undeveloped wealth, in the form of iron, coal, copper, oil and minerals of every description, it becomes a most pleasing task to the biographer who first saw the light of day on Canadian soil, to briefly sketch the lives of men who are known to be thoroughly patriotic and who are earnestly and zealously devoting their whole time, attention and energy, to the best interests of their country and the development of its resources. Such may be said of the subject of this sketch, Hon. John Graham Haggart, Minister of Railways and Canals, who was born at Perth, Ontario, November 14th, 1836, and whose parents, John Haggart, Esq., of Breadalbane, Perthshire, Scotland, and Isabella Graham, of the Isle of Skye, Inverness-shire, Scotland, came to this country in 1835.

By indomitable pluck, energy and thrift, young Haggart made his way in the struggle for wealth and became a mill owner and a prominent citizen in the place of his birth.

Hon. Mr. Haggart soon became recognized as a man possessed of more than ordinary ability and tact, and in consequence was elected Mayor of Perth, which position he occupied for several years.

In 1867, the year of Canadian confederation, he was chosen as candidate for South Lanark to contest that constituency for a seat on which occasion he met again unsuccessfully in 1869. However, the people terminated that he should not in 1872 the electorate of him to enter the wider field he was returned by a sub-re-elected for the same contention at the general elections and 1891, on every occasion the Liberal Conservative

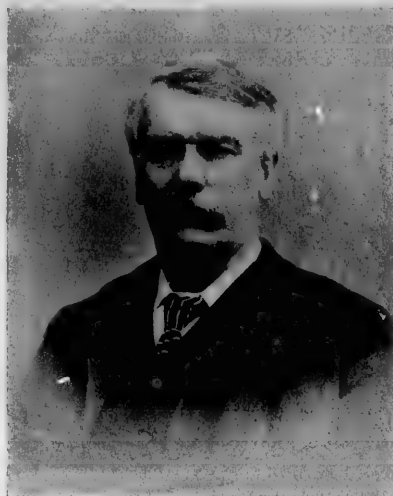
From the outset, Mr. part in all the deliberations soon seen that at no very to become something more the Dominion Parliament. Macdonald, recognizing in marked executive ability, seat in his Cabinet, which 1888, was sworn of the Postmaster General, a position credit to himself and satis-

When the late Sir John his reward and the late Sir John C. Abbott was requested by His Excellency to succeed him, Hon. Mr. Haggart was asked to remain in the Cabinet, which he did, and on the 5th of December, 1892, he was appointed to the important position of Railways and Canals, which he still occupies and which he has undoubtedly filled with great ability and unprecedented success.

It may be here stated that up to the time of Mr. Haggart taking the position of Minister of the Department of Railways and Canals, the Intercolonial Railway had been a source of annoyance to the Government and a continual drain upon the Dominion treasury.

On the appointment of Mr. Haggart a new era set in, and immediately radical changes were made all along the line. Every department connected with the Railway was visited and every detail thoroughly gone into, with the result that the annual deficit began to disappear, and finally, the road was placed on a sound basis and an equilibrium was reached, and it may be expected that in the near future it will be a source of revenue to the country instead of, as heretofore, a great weight on the shoulders of the government and a very unprofitable investment. So that to the executive ability and also to the good sound business training of Mr. Haggart is entirely due the almost marvellous change that has taken place in the conduct of the affairs of the Intercolonial Railway.

Owing to his kind and genial nature, Hon. John Graham Haggart has a wide circle of friends, and it is safe to say that there is still greater honors in store for the Minister of Railways and Canals.



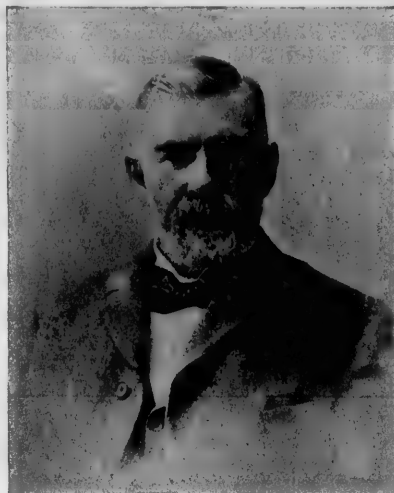
in the Ontario Assembly, with defeat. Mr. Haggart tested the same seat in of South Lanark were de-remain in private life, and that constituency induced of Dominion politics, when stantial majority, and was stituency without interrup- in 1874, 1878, 1882, 1887, as a staunch supporter of platform.

Haggart took a very active of the House, and it was distant date he was destined than a private member of The late Sir John A. Mr. Haggart a man of requested him to accept a he did, and on August 6th, Privy Council and appointed tion which he held with faction to his colleagues.

A. Macdonald passed to

MR. JOHN CHARLTON, M.P.

BORN in, and for many years a resident of the United States, now a Canadian statesman, whose utterances are listened to with wrapt attention in the parliamentary halls at Ottawa; more Canadian than those of Canadian birth; a staunch opponent of annexation, with a firm belief in the future independence of Canada. Such is a brief pen picture of Mr. John Charlton, M.P. for North Norfolk, Ont. In the Commons of Canada, there is no more weightier or more eloquent debater, and hackneyed though the phrase may be, Mr. Charlton is in every sense a self-made man, risen to his present proud position through that energy of character, born of honest toil, and a sketch of whose somewhat checkered career is particularly of interest in a work on Capital and Labor. Mr. Charlton was born in the State of New York, February 3rd, 1829, and was educated at the McLaren Grammar School, at Caledonia, N.Y., completing it at the Springville Academy, at Springville, in the same State. His earlier years were marked by no important event, and for some few years he lived with his father near Ellicottville, practising the ordinary work of a young farmer, but not over fond of agricultural pursuits, he managed in his leisure moments to learn the art of type-setting in the office of the *Catharagus Whig*. He also, for pleasure, read some law in the office of Mr. A. G. Rice. In the spring of 1846, when seventeen years of age, he abandoned the farm and made a trip on a ghany and Ohio rivers to he frequently alludes to his the rough but kind-hearted in 1849, at the age of the scene of his future suc- wards we find him in part as co-proprietor of a small Creek, at Wilson's Mills, in The capital of the young the country was new and deavored to add to their were soon connected with over & Co., of Tonawanda, economy, they quickly built business, in which Mr. not only in Canada but in Mr. Charlton's debut in cepted the nomination for folk, in 1872, and after a June 20th to August 5th, Esq., the Intercolonial Com- North Norfolk in the pre- then he has continuously represented North Norfolk, being returned at no less than six general elec- tions. Mr. Charlton is one of the most active workers in the Commons, and his voice is heard with no uncertain ring on almost every measure that comes before the House. In early years he was a Protectionist, but investigation and study led him finally to pronounce in favor of a revenue tariff policy. Although he believes that the ultimate destiny of Canada is independence, he doubted if the proper time has yet come for that change. He is strongly against annexation to the United States, and favors a continuance of Canadian autonomy, provided a proper and honest administration of our affairs with Continental free trade can be secured, believing that the experiment of working out the British system of responsible government, side by side with the American system, is likely to prove of untold value to the inhabitants of both countries, and to Anglo-Saxon communities and other free commonwealths in all parts of the world. As stated, Mr. Charlton is looked upon as one of the ablest public speakers in the Dominion. He is well informed and widely read on all topics; his speeches are eloquent and cultured, as may be seen by a glance at his very able utterances on the Sunday Observance question which appears in another part of this book under the caption of "The Toiler's Right to Sunday Rest," and whenever he rises to address the House of Commons, he is listened to with marked attention by all, irrespective of party or politics. Such is a brief sketch of John Charlton, who, although in his sixty-sixth year, is still robust of health, and has yet before him it is to be hoped a widely useful career for the country of his adoption.



of age, he abandoned the lumber raft down the Alle- Cincinnati, and in late years five weeks experience with raftsmen. Three years later, twenty, he came to Canada, cesses, and four years after- nership with Mr. Geo. Gray, general store upon the Big the County of Norfolk, Ont. firm was very small, but as timber abundant, they en- means by lumbering, and the firm of Smith, West- N.Y., and by energy and up an extensive lumbering Charlton is still interested, New York and Michigan. politics was when he ac- the Commons in North Nor- lively contest lasting from he defeated Aquilla Walsh, missioner, who represented vious Parliament. Since



MESSRS. DAWES & COMPANY.

A REVIEW of the business interests of the city of Montreal brings to light the name of no firm which stands higher in public esteem and confidence than that which forms the subject of this sketch. As the best known firm of Brewers and Malsters in the Dominion, they occupy a conspicuous position in the Canadian world of trade. Unique, indeed, it may be called. Their House stands to-day secure in an easy prosperity which is the best and most faithful verdict of the past. The complete stock, ample resources, and remarkable enterprise of Messrs. Dawes & Co. are matters of which the Canadian metropolis has reason to be proud.

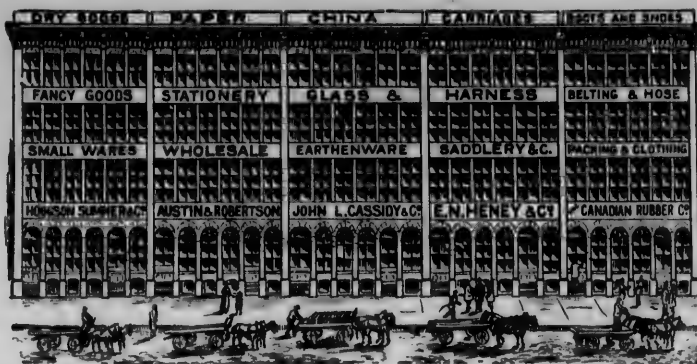
The business was established in 1827, and has ever since been carried on, in an uninterrupted career of success, the volume and value of their trading connection increasing materially as year followed year. The secret of their rare success is not far to seek, and lies in the fact that from the commencement, the members of this firm have scrupulously maintained the high standard of the goods they handle.

The members of the firm to-day are Mr. Thomas A. Dawes, Mr. James P. Dawes, and Mr. Andrew J. Dawes. These gentlemen are highly esteemed in business circles for their strict integrity, executive ability, and sterling probity. They are men of public spirit and wield a widely beneficial influence.

Besides the brewing business, Messrs. Dawes are extensive land owners, and are noted far and near as highly successful breeders of pure bred cattle. Their beautiful farms are largely devoted to stock-raising, and their Jersey and Ayrshire cattle, of which they make a specialty, are justly celebrated.

They give attention also to the raising of horses, both thorough-bred and carriage, and their investments here likewise are attended with the success that characterizes their efforts in every department.

The importance to the country at large of stock-raising thus pursued by men of means and intelligence cannot be over-rated. This branch of industry is individually bound up with the agricultural interests of the country, and every effort put forth for its further development is entitled to the sympathy and good will which it seldom fails to excite. Besides the farm lands above alluded to, Messrs. Dawes own extensive and valuable property in the town of Lachine. The beautiful and romantic scenery of that locality, assisted by its singularly interesting historical associations greatly enhances the undoubted charm of their homes there, which stand in the midst of beautiful grounds, and command views of scenery unexcelled in any part of the Dominion.



E. N. HENEY AND COMPANY.

MONTREAL has long held a prominent position as a manufacturing centre, and many of the houses and firms that lend her this pre-eminence have had a history intertwined with that of the city itself, and involving narratives of adventure, skill, and heroism second to few in historical annals.

Out from small and perilous beginnings came some of our most solid and widely-known business establishments, and it is with justifiable pride and gratulation that the men whose ability and labor guide them, point to-day to their increasing trade, and their high reputation. Even when that trade is confined to the Dominion alone, reason for satisfaction is abundant, and praise of the efforts and skill that brought about such result is not reluctantly awarded.

In the firm which is the subject of this sketch, we have a manufacturing house which, though only established in 1875, has so marvellously increased that not only are regular dealers supplied throughout Great Britain and Ireland, but for several years past this important concern has done business in South Africa, where the discovery of gold mines in the Transvaal has affected their interests most favorably.

This firm, which runs the largest manufactory of Carriages and Harness in Canada, is composed of E. N. Heney and his brother, W. F. Heney. It is undeniably a representative house. The original firm was Messrs. E. N. Heney and Lacroix, the change in the present partnership being effected in 1889.

The warehouse and offices of the firm are situated in the extensive five-story and basement building of the Nuns, No. 337 St. Paul Street. Until very recently the firm has owned two large factories—one on Debresoles Street and one on Mignonne Street. Their factory now is in the immense buildings originally built for the Adams' Tobacco Company, on Notre Dame Street. This factory is equipped throughout with all modern appliances, and is the finest establishment of the kind in the Dominion. About two hundred and fifty hands are employed in this business.

They manufacture buggies, phaetons, carriages, and wagons of the highest grade, using only the best and choicest materials, and invariably turning out work of super-excellence. They are proprietors of the Montreal Horse Clothing Company, and turn out all kinds of summer and winter horse clothing for the wholesale trade only. They are also wholesale dealers in all sorts of goods connected with the harness and carriage trade. The Company employs six travellers in the Dominion, who cover the ground from Halifax to Victoria, B.C.

There is something almost phenomenal in the rapidity which has characterized the growth of this enterprise. Its course in South Africa has already been touched upon. It is likewise well-established in India, and the Company have just completed arrangements to push the trade in Australia. Special styles are necessitated for the foreign branches of the trade, and the same perfection marks all turned out in those connections which has, in the Dominion, made the goods of E. N. Heney and Company a guarantee for excellence of design and finish.

The firm's catalogues have always displayed the taste that shows so prominently in their goods, and may be almost classed as works of art. Their handsome, illustrated catalogue of light pleasure wagons, and also the catalogue of harness, show an immense variety of goods of unique merit. These catalogues are supplied to dealers.

It may be stated that the manufacture of carriages is one of the most important industries in Canada.



E. A. SMALL & CO.

THE name of the enterprising firm which has its business premises at 1 Beaver Hall Hill, Victoria Square, Montreal, is widely known in the commercial life of the Dominion. The business, which it is hardly necessary to say, is of vast proportions, has been managed with a sagacity and vigilance that has, within a brief space of years, brought the concern into a prominence that entitles it to be considered one of the most important of those great houses which occupy the fore-front in the business life of the city.

The business was commenced in January, 1887, by Mr. E. A. Small alone, he having just retired from the firm of H. Shorey & Co., where he had been a partner for some twenty years. The first premises occupied were on McGill Street. These, however, soon became too cramped for the rapidly extending business which, although ever conducted on most conservative lines, was pushed with an energy and keen business foresight that soon brought it to the splendid position it occupies to-day. It is, in fact, the leading firm of Clothing Manufacturers in Eastern Canada.

This firm now occupies the premises originally built for the late firm of James O'Brien & Co. The building is one of the best appointed warehouses in the Dominion, as may be seen by the accompanying cut.

The aim of the management is to lead, not follow, and nothing new, either in fashion or material, is overlooked in the manufacture of garments.

The members of the firm are still comparatively young men, and came to Canada early in life. Mr Small is an Englishman by birth, and Mr. C. H. Dobbin, junior partner, an Irishman. To the watchful care of the latter, who was admitted to partnership soon after the formation of the firm, some small share of the success of the business may be attributed.

This house was the first to use the new inter-lining Fibre Chamois, and were shareholders in the original Company formed to manufacture this article in Canada—"The Canadian Fibre Chamois Co., Ltd."—whose product was at first confined to E. A. Small & Co. for the Clothing trade.

The travellers employed by E. A. Small & Co. are eleven in number. They cover the whole Dominion from Prince Edward's Island in the east, to the newly-opened mining districts in British Columbia in the far west. There are but few clothing merchants of any consequence in this vast field who do not handle their manufactures.

Four years ago the firm bought out Wm. Ewan & Son, and in the summer of 1895 they also bought out J. W. Mackenzie & Co., retaining the best customers of these two firms, thus reducing competition, while at the same time it largely increased their own business.

EFFECTS OF REGULATIONS PRESCRIBING THE NATURE OF PRODUCTS.

BY JEAN-BAPTISTE SAY.

Blanqui, in his History of Political Economy, says: "Adam Smith had thrown much light on the theory of banks, division of labor, and the foundation of the value of things; he had made virtual discoveries, but he had not lived long enough to observe their applications. It was only after his death that people could judge of the effects of unlimited competition of which he was one of the first apostles, and the complicated pauperism of our days had not disturbed the serenity of those in which he lived. Political Economy was only the science of the production of wealth. It was reserved for a Frenchman (Jean-Baptiste Say), to complete the work and initiate us into the mysteries of the distribution of the profits of the labor at the same time that he made known to us the so varied phenomena of the consumption of products."

The natural wants of society and its circumstances for the time being, occasion a more or less lively demand for particular kinds of products. Consequently in these branches of production, productive services are somewhat better paid than in the rest; that is to say, the profits upon land, capital and labor, devoted to those branches of production, are some somewhat larger. This additional profit naturally attracts producers, and thus the nature of the products is always regulated by the wants of society.

When authority throws itself in the way of this natural course of things, and says, the product you are about to create, that which yields the greatest profits, and is consequently the most in request, is by no means the most suitable to your circumstances, you must undertake some other, it evidently directs a portion of the productive energies of the nation towards an object of less desire, at the expense of another of more urgent desire.

In France, about the year 1794, there were some persons persecuted, and even brought to the scaffold, for having converted corn land into pasturage. Yet the moment these unhappy people found it more profitable to feed cattle than to grow corn, one might have been sure that society stood more in need of cattle than of corn, and that greater value could be produced in one way than the other.

But, said the public authorities, the value produced is of less importance than the nature of the product, and we would rather have you raise ten dollars worth of grain than twenty dollars worth of butcher's meat. In this they betrayed their ignorance of the simple truth, that the greatest product is always the best; and that an estate, which should produce in butcher's meat wherewith to purchase twice as much wheat as could have been raised upon it, produces, in reality, twice as much to eat as if it had been sowed with grain; since wheat to twice the amount is to be got for its product. This way of getting wheat, they will say to you, does not increase its total quantity. True, unless it be introduced from abroad; but nevertheless, this article must at the time be relatively more plentiful than butcher's meat, because the product of two acres of wheat is given for that of one of pasture.* And, if wheat be sufficiently scarce, and in sufficient request, it will be more profitable than grazing, legislative interference is superfluous altogether; for self-interest will make the producer turn his attempt to the former.

The only question then is, which is the most likely to know what kind of cultivation yields the largest returns, the cultivator or the government; and we may fairly take it for granted, that the cultivator, residing on the spot, making it the object of constant study and inquiry, and more interested in success than anybody, is better informed in this respect than the government.

Should it be insisted upon in argument, that the cultivator knows only the price-current of the day, and does not, like the government, provide for the future wants of the people, it may be answered, that one of the talents of a producer, and a talent his own interest obliges him assiduously to cultivate, is not the mere knowledge, but the fore-knowledge, of human wants.

*At the disastrous period in question, there was no actual want of wheat; the growers merely felt a disinclination to sell for paper money. Wheat was sold for real value at a very reasonable rate; and, though a hundred thousand acres of pasture land had been converted into arable, the disinclination to exchange wheat for a discredited paper money would not have been a jot reduced.

An evil of the same description was occasioned, when, at another period, the proprietors were compelled to cultivate beet-root or woad in lieu of grain; indeed, we may observe, *en passant*, that it is always a bad speculation to attempt raising the products of the torrid, under the sun of the temperate latitudes. The saccharine and coloring juices, raised on the European soils, with all the forcing in the world, are very inferior in quantity and quality to those that grow in profusion in other climates; while, on the other hand, those soils yield abundance of grain and fruits too bulky and heavy to be imported from a distance. In condemning our lands to the growth of products ill suited to them, instead of those they are better calculated for, and, consequently, buying very dear what we might have cheap enough, if we would consent to receive them from places where they are produced with advantage, we are ourselves the victims of our own absurdity. It is the very *acme* of skill, to turn the powers of nature to best account, and the height of madness to contend against them; which is in fact wasting part of our strength, in destroying those powers she designed for our aid.

Again, it is laid down as maxim, that it is better to buy products dear, when the price remains in the country, than to get them cheap from foreign growers. On this point I must refer my readers to that analysis of production which we have just gone through. It will there be seen, that products are not to be obtained without some sacrifice,—without the consumption of commodities and productive services in some ratio or other, the value of which is in this way as completely lost to the community, as if it were to be exported.

I can hardly suppose any government will be bold enough to object, that it is indifferent about the profit, which might be derived from a more advantageous production, because it would fall to the lot of individuals. The worst governments, those which set up their own interest in the most direct opposition to that of their subjects, have by this time learned, that the revenues of individuals are the regenerating source of public revenue; and that, even under despotic and military sway, where taxation is mere organized spoliation, the subjects can pay only what they have themselves acquired.

The maxims we have been applying to agriculture are equally applicable to manufacture. Sometimes a government entertains a notion, that the manufacture of a native raw material is better for the national industry, than the manufacture of a foreign raw material. It is in conformity to this notion, that we have seen instances of preference given to the woolen and linen above the cotton manufacture. By this conduct we contrive, as far as in us lies, to limit the bounty of nature, which pours forth in different climates a variety of materials adapted to our innumerable wants. Whenever human efforts succeed in attaching to these gifts a value, that is to say, a degree of utility, whether by their import, or by any modification we may subject them to, a useful act is performed, and an item added to national wealth. The sacrifice we made to foreigners in procuring the raw material is not a whit more to be regretted, than the sacrifice of advances and consumption, that must be made in every branch of production, before we can get a new product. Personal interest is, in all cases, the best judge of the extent of the sacrifice, and of the indemnity we may expect for it; and, although this guide may sometimes mislead us, it is the safest in the long run, as well as the least costly.

But personal interest is no longer a safe criterion, if individual interests are not left to counteract and control each other. If one individual, or one class, can call in the aid of authority to ward off the effects of competition, it acquires a privilege to the prejudice and at the cost of the whole community; it can then make sure of profits not altogether due to the productive services rendered, but composed in part of an actual tax upon consumers for its private profit; which tax it commonly shares with the authority that thus unjustly lends its support.

The legislative body has great difficulty in resisting the importunate demands for this kind of privileges; the applicants are the producers that are to benefit thereby, who can represent, with much plausibility, that their own gains are a gain to the industrious classes, and to the nation at large, their workmen and themselves being members of the industrious classes, and of the nation.*

When the cotton manufacture was first introduced in France, all the merchants of Amiens, Rheims, Beauvais, etc., joined in loud remonstrances, and represented that the industry of these towns was annihilated. Yet they do not appear less industrious or rich than they were fifty years ago; while the opulence of Rouen and all Normandy has been wonderfully increased by the new fabric.

The outcry was infinitely greater, when printed calicoes first came into fashion; all the chambers of commerce were up in arms; meetings, discussions everywhere took place; memorials and deputations

*No one cries out against them, because very few know who it is that pays the gains of the monopolist. The real sufferers, the consumers themselves, often feel the pressure, without being aware of the cause of it, and are the first to abuse the enlightened individuals, who are really advocating their interests.

poured in from every quarter, and great sums were spent in the opposition. Rouen now stood forward to represent the misery about to assail her, and painted, in moving colors, "old men, women and children, rendered destitute; the best cultivated lands in the kingdom lying waste, and the whole of a rich and beautiful province depopulated." The city of Tours urged the lamentations of the deputies of the whole kingdom, and foretold "a commotion that would shake the frame of social order itself." Lyons could not view in silence a project "which filled all her manufactories with alarm." Never on so important an occasion had Paris presented itself at the foot of a throne, "watered with the tears of commerce." Amiens viewed the introduction of printed calicoes as the gulf that must inevitably swallow up all the manufactures of the kingdom. The memorial of that city, drawn up at a joint meeting of the three corporations, and signed unanimously, ended in these terms: "To conclude, it is enough for the eternal prohibition of the use of printed calicoes, that the whole kingdom is chilled with horror at the news of their proposed toleration. *Vox populi, vox dei.*"

Hear what Roland de la Platière, who had the presentation of these remonstrances in quality of inspector-general of manufactures, says on this subject: "Is there a single individual at the present moment, who is mad enough to deny, that the fabric of printed calicoes employs an immense number of hands, what with the dressing of cotton, the spinning, weaving, bleaching, and printing? This article has improved the art of dyeing in a few years, more than all the other manufactures together have done in a century."

I must beg my readers to pause a moment, and reflect, what firmness and extensive information respecting the sources of public prosperity were necessary to uphold an administration against so general a clamor, supported amongst the principal agents of authority, by other motives, besides that of public utility.

Though governments have too often presumed upon their power to benefit the general wealth by prescribing to agriculture and manufacture the raising of particular products, they have interfered much more particularly in the concerns of commerce, especially of external commerce. These bad consequences have resulted from a general system, distinguished by the name of the *exclusive or mercantile system*, which attributes the profits of a nation to what is technically called a *favorable balance of trade*.

We have seen, that the very advantages aimed at by the means of a favorable balance of trade, are altogether illusory, and that, supposing them real, it is impossible for a nation permanently to enjoy them. It remains to be shown, what is the actual operation of regulations framed with this object in view.

By the absolute exclusion of specific manufactures of foreign fabric, a government establishes a monopoly in favor of the home producers of these articles, and in prejudice of the home consumers; that is to say, those classes of the nation which produce them, being entitled to their exclusive sale, can raise their prices above the natural rate; while the home consumers, being unable to purchase elsewhere, are compelled to pay for them unnaturally dear. If the articles be not wholly prohibited, but merely saddled with an import duty, the home producer can then increase their price by the whole amount of the duty, and the consumer will have to pay the difference. For example, if an import duty of 20 cents per dozen be laid upon earthenware plates worth 60 cents per dozen, the importer, whatever country he may belong to, must charge the consumer 30 cents; and the home manufacturer of that commodity is enabled to ask 80 cents per dozen of his customers for plates of the same quality; which he could not do without the intervention of the duty; because the consumer could get the same article for 60 cents: thus, a premium to the whole extent of the duty is given to the home manufacturer out of the consumer's pocket.

Should any one maintain, that the advantage of producing at home counterbalances the hardship of paying dearer for almost every article; that our own capital and labor are engaged in the production, and the profits pocketed by our fellow citizens; my answer is, that the foreign commodities that we might import are not to be had gratis; that we must purchase them with values of home production, which would have given equal employment to our industry and capital; for we must never lose sight of this maxim, that products are always bought ultimately with products. It is most for our advantage to employ our productive powers, not in those branches in which foreigners excel us, but in those which we excel in ourselves; and with the product to purchase of others. The opposite course would be just as absurd, as if a man should wish to make his own coats and shoes. What would the world say, if, at the door of every house an import duty were laid upon coats and shoes for the laudable purpose of compelling the inmates to make them for themselves? Would not people say with justice, let us follow each his own pursuits, and buy what we want with what we produce, or, which comes to the same thing, with what we get for our products. The system would be precisely the same, only carried to a ridiculous extreme.

Well may it be a matter of wonder, that every nation should manifest such anxiety to obtain prohibitory regulations, if it be true that it can profit nothing by them; and lead one to suppose the two cases not parallel, because we do not find individual householders solicitous to obtain the same privilege. But the sole

difference is this, that individuals are independent and consistent beings, actuated by no contrariety of will, and more interested in their character of consumers of coats and shoes to buy them cheap, than as manufacturers to sell unnaturally dear.

Who, then, are the classes of the community so importunate for prohibitions or heavy import duties? The producers of the particular commodity, that applies for protection from competition, not the consumers of that commodity. The public interest is their plea, but self-interest is evidently their object. Well, but, say these gentry, are they not the same thing? are not our gains national gains? By no means: whatever profit is acquired in this manner, is so much taken out of the pockets of a neighbor and fellow-citizen, and, if the excess of a charge thrown upon consumers by the monopoly could be correctly computed, it would be found that the loss of the consumer exceeds the gain of the monopolist. Here, then, individual and public interests are in direct opposition to each other; and since public interest is understood by the enlightened few alone, is it at all surprising, that the prohibitive system should find so many partisans and so few opponents?

There is in general far too little attention paid to the serious mischief of raising prices upon the consumers. The evil is not apparent to cursory observation, because it operates piecemeal, and is felt in a very slight degree on every purchase or act of consumption: but it is really most serious, on account of its constant recurrence and universal pressure. The whole fortune of every consumer is affected by every fluctuation of price in the articles of his consumption; the cheaper they are, the richer he is, and *vice versa*. If a single article rise in price, he is so much the more poor in respect of that article; if all rise together, he is poorer in respect to the whole. And since the whole nation is comprehended in the class of the consumers, the whole nation must in that case be the poorer. Besides which, it is crippled in the extension of the variety of its enjoyments, and prevented from obtaining products whereof it stands in need, in exchange for those wherewith it might procure them. It is of no use to assert, that, when prices are raised, what one gains another loses. For the position is not true, except in the case of monopolies; nor even to the full extent with regard to them; for the monopolist never profits to the full amount of the loss to the consumers. If the rise be occasioned by taxation or import duty under any shape whatever, the producer gains nothing by the increase of price, but just the reverse, so that, in fact, he is no richer in his capacity of producer, though poorer in his quality of consumer. This is one of the most effective causes of national impoverishment, or at least one of the most powerful checks to the progress of national wealth.

For this reason, it may be perceived, that it is an absurd distinction to view with more jealousy the import of foreign objects of barren consumption, than that of raw materials for home manufacture. Whether the products consumed be of domestic or of foreign growth, a portion of wealth is destroyed in the act of consumption, and a proportionate inroad made into the wealth of the community. But that inroad is the result of the act of consumption, not of the act of dealing with the foreigner; and the resulting stimulus to national production, is the same in either case. For, wherewith was the purchase of the foreign product made? either with a domestic product or with money, which must itself have been procured with a domestic product. In buying of a foreigner, the nation really does no more than send abroad a domestic product in lieu of consuming it at home, and consume in its place the foreign product received in exchange. The individual consumer himself, probably, does not conduct this operation; commerce conducts it for him. No one country can buy of another except with its own domestic products.

In defence of import duties it is often urged, "that when the interest of money is lower abroad than at home, the foreign has an advantage over the home producer, which must be met by a countervailing duty." The lower rate of interest is, to the foreign producer, an advantage, analogous to that of the superior quality of his land. It tends to cheapen the products he raises; and it is reasonable enough that our domestic consumers should take the benefit of that cheapness. The same motive will operate here, that leads us rather to import sugar and indigo from tropical climates, than to raise them in our own.

"But capital is necessary in every branch of production: so that the foreigner, who can procure it at a lower rate of interest, has the same advantage in respect to every product; and, if the free importation be permitted, he will have an advantage over all classes of home producers." Tell me, then, how his products are to be paid for? "Why, in specie, and there lies the mischief." And how is the specie to be got to pay for them? "All the nation has, will go in that way; and when it is exhausted national misery will be complete." So, then, it is admitted, that before arriving at this extremity, the constant efflux of specie will gradually render it more scarce at home, and more abundant abroad; wherefore it will gradually rise 1, 2, 3, per cent. higher in value at home than abroad; which is fully sufficient to turn the tide, and make specie flow inwards faster than it flowed outwards. But it will not do so without some returns; and of what can the returns be made, but of products of the land, or the commerce of the nation? For there is no possible means of purchasing from foreign nations, otherwise than with products of the national land commerce; and it is

better to buy of them what they can produce cheaper than ourselves, because we may rest assured that they must take in payment what we can produce cheaper than they. This they must do, else there must be an end of all interchange.

In pursuit of what it mistakes for profound policy, or to gratify feelings it supposes to be laudable, a government will sometimes prohibit or divert the course of a particular trade, and thereby do irreparable mischief to the productive powers of the nation. When Philip II. became master of Portugal, and forbade all intercourse between his new subjects and the Dutch, whom he detested, what was the consequence? The Dutch, who before resorted to Lisbon for the manufactures of India, of which they took off an immense quantity, finding this avenue closed against their industry, went straight to India for what they wanted, and in the end, drove out the Portuguese from that quarter; and, what was meant as the deadly blow of inveterate hatred, turned out the main source of their aggrandizement. "Commerce," says Fenelon, "is like the native springs of the rock, which often cease to flow altogether, if it be attempted to alter their course."*

Such are the principal evils of impediments thrown in the way of import, which are carried to the extreme point by absolute prohibition. There have, indeed, been instances of nations that have thriven under such a system; but then it was because the causes of national prosperity were more powerful than the causes of national impoverishment. Nations resemble the human frame, which contains a vital principle, that incessantly labors to repair the inroads of excess and dissipation upon its health and constitution. Nature is active in closing the wounds and healing the bruises inflicted by our own awkwardness and intemperance. In like manner, states maintain themselves, nay, often increase in prosperity, in spite of the infinite injuries of every description, which friends as well as enemies inflict upon them. And it is worth remarking, that the most industrious nations are those which are the most subjected to such outrage, because none others could survive them. The cry is then, "our system must be the true one, for the national prosperity is advancing." Whereas, were we to take an enlarged view of the circumstances that for the last three centuries have combined to develop the power and faculties of man; to survey with the eye of intelligence the progress of navigation and discovery, of invention in every branch of art and science; to take account of the variety of useful animals and vegetables that have been transplanted from one hemisphere to the other, and to give a due attention to the vast augmentation and increased scope both of science and of its practical applications that we are daily witnesses of, we could not resist the conviction, that our actual prosperity is nothing to what it might have been; that it is engaged in a perpetual struggle against the obstacles and impediments thrown into its way; and that even in those parts of the world where mankind is deemed the most enlightened, a great part of their time and exertions are occupied in destroying instead of multiplying their resources, in despoiling instead of assisting each other; and all for want of correct knowledge and information respecting their real interests.

But, to return to the subject we have just been examining, the nature of the injury that a community suffers by difficulties thrown in the way of the introduction of foreign commodities. The mischief occasioned to the country that produces the prohibited article, is of the same kind and description. It is prevented from turning its capital and industry to the best account. But it is not to be supposed that the foreign nation can by this means be utterly ruined and stripped of all resource, as Napoleon seemed to imagine, when he excluded the products of Britain from the markets of the continent. To say nothing of the impossibility of effecting a complete and actual blockade of a whole country, opposed as it must be by the universal motive of self-interest, the utmost effect of it can only be to drive its production into a different channel. A nation is always competent to the purchase and consumption of the whole of its own products, for products are always bought with other products. Do you think it possible to prevent England from producing value to the amount of a million, by preventing her export of woollens to that amount? You are much mistaken if you do. England will employ the same capital and the same manual labor in the preparation of ardent spirits, by the distillation of grain or other domestic products, that were before occupied in the manufacture of woollens for the French market, and she will then no longer bring her woollens to be bartered for French brandies. A country, in one way or other, direct or indirect, always consumes the values it produces and can consume nothing more. If it cannot exchange its products with its neighbors, it is compelled to produce values of such kinds only as it can consume at home. This is the utmost effect of prohibitions; both parties are worse provided, and neither is at all the richer.

*The national convention of France prohibited the import of raw hides from Spain, on the plea that they injured the trade in those of France; not observing, that the self-same hides went back to Spain in a tanned state. The tanneries of France being obliged to procure the raw article at too dear a rate, were quickly abandoned; and the manufacture was transferred to Spain, along with a great part of the capital, and many of the hands employed. It is next to impossible for a government, not only to do any good to national production by its interference, but even to avoid doing mischief.

Napoleon, doubtless, occasioned much injury, both to England and to the continent, by cramping their mutual relations of commerce as far as he possibly could. But, on the other hand, he did the continent of Europe the involuntary service of facilitating the communication between its different parts, by the universality of dominion, which his ambition had well-nigh achieved. The frontier duties between Holland, Belgium, part of Germany, Italy and France, were demolished; and those of the other powers, with the exception of England, were far from oppressive. We may form some estimate of the benefit thence resulting to commerce, from the discontent and stagnation that have ensued upon the establishment of the present system of lining the frontier of each state with a triple guard of *douaniers*. All the continental states so guarded have, indeed, preserved their former means of production; but that production has been made less advantageous.

It cannot be denied, that France has gained prodigiously by the suppression of the provincial barriers and custom houses, consequent upon her political revolution. Europe had, in like manner, gained by the partial removal of the international barriers between its different political states; and the world at large would derive similar benefit from the demolition of those, which insulate, as it were, the various communities into which the human race is divided.

I have omitted to mention other very serious evils of the exclusive system; as, for instance, the creation of a new class of crime, that of smuggling; whereby an action wholly innocent in itself, is made legally criminal; and persons, who are actually laboring for the general welfare, are subjected to punishment.

Smith admits of two circumstances, that in his opinion, will justify a government in resorting to import duties:—1. When a particular branch of industry is necessary to the public security, and the external supply cannot be safely reckoned upon. On this account a government may very wisely prohibit the import of gunpowder, if such prohibition be necessary to set the powder-mills at home in activity; for it is better to pay somewhat dear for so essential an article, than to run the risk of being unprovided in the hour of need. 2. Where a similar commodity of home produce is already saddled with a duty. The foreign article, if wholly exempt from duty, would in this case have an actual privilege; so that a duty imposed has not the effect of destroying, but of restoring the natural equilibrium and relative position of the different branches of production.

Indeed, it is impossible to find any reasonable ground for exempting the production of values by the channel of external commerce from the same pressure of taxation that weighs upon the production effected in those of agriculture and manufacture. Taxation is, doubtless, an evil, and one which should be reduced to the lowest possible degree; but when once a given amount of taxation is admitted to be necessary, it is but common justice to lay it equally on all three branches of industry. The error I wish to expose to reprobation is the notion of taxes of this kind are favorable to production. A tax can never be favorable to the public welfare, except by the good use that is made of its proceeds.

These points should never be lost sight of in the framing of commercial treaties, which are really good for nothing but to protect industry and capital, diverted into improper channels by the blunders of legislation. These it would be far wiser to remedy than to perpetuate. The healthy state of industry and wealth is the state of absolute liberty, in which each interest is left to take care of itself. The only useful protection authority can afford them is that against fraud or violence. Taxes and restrictive measures never can be a benefit; they are at the best a necessary evil; to suppose them useful to the subjects at large, is to mistake the foundation of national prosperity, and to set at naught the principles of political economy.

Import duties and prohibitions have often been resorted to as a means of retaliation: "Your government throws impediments in the way of introduction of our national products; are not we, then, justified in equally impeding the introduction of yours?" This is the favorite plea, and the basis of most commercial treaties; but people mistake their object; granting that nations have a right to do one another as much mischief as possible; which, by the way, I can hardly admit; I am not here disputing their rights, but discussing their interests.

Undoubtedly, a nation that excludes you from all commercial intercourse with her, does you an injury; robs you, as far as in her lies, of the benefits of external commerce; if, therefore, by the dread of retaliation, you can induce her to abandon her exclusive measures, there is no question about the expediency of such retaliation, as a matter of mere policy. But it must not be forgotten that retaliation hurts yourself as well as your rival; that it operates, not defensively against her selfish measures, but offensively against yourself, in the first instance, for the purpose of indirectly attacking her. The only point in question is this, what degree of vengeance you are animated by, and how much will you consent to throw away upon its gratification. I will not undertake to enumerate all the evils arising from treaties of commerce, or to apply the principles enforced throughout this work to all the clauses and provisions usually contained in them. I will confine myself to the remark, that almost every modern treaty of commerce has had for its basis the

imaginary advantage and possibility of the liquidation of a favorable balance of trade by an import of specie. If these turn out to be chimerical, whatever advantage may have resulted from such treaties must be wholly referred to the additional freedom and facility of international communication obtained by them, and not at all to their restrictive clauses or provisos, unless either of the contracting parties has availed itself of its superior power, to exact conditions savoring of a tributary character ; as England has done in relation to Portugal. In such case, it is mere exaction and spoliation.

Again, I would observe, that the offer of peculiar advantages by one nation to another, in the way of a treaty of commerce, if not an act of hostility, is at least one of extreme odium in the eyes of other nations. For the concession to one can only be rendered effectually by the refusal to others. Hence the germ of discord and of war, with all its mischiefs. It is infinitely more simple, and I hope to have shown, more profitable also, to treat all nations as friends, and impose no higher duties on the introduction of their products, than what are necessary to place them on the same footing as those of domestic growth.

Yet, notwithstanding all the mischiefs resulting from the exclusion of foreign products, which I have been depicting, it would be an act of unquestionable rashness suddenly to change even so ruinous a policy. Disease is not to be eradicated in a moment ; it requires nursing and management to dispense even national benefits. Monopolies are an abuse, but an abuse in which an enormous capital is vested, and numberless industrious agents employed, which deserve to be treated with consideration ; for this mass of capital and industry cannot all at once find a more advantageous channel of national production. Perhaps the cure of all the partial distresses that must follow the downfall of that colossal monster in politics, the exclusive system, would be as much as the talent of any single statesman could accomplish ; yet when one considers calmly the wrongs it entails when it is established, and the distresses consequent upon its overthrow, we are insensibly led to the reflection, that, if it be so difficult to set shackled industry at liberty again, with what caution ought we not to receive any proposition for enslaving her !

But governments have not been content with checking the import of foreign products. In the firm conviction, that national prosperity consists in selling without buying, and blind to the utter impossibility of the thing, they have gone beyond the mere imposition of a tax or fine upon purchasing of foreigners, and have in many instances offered rewards in the shape of bounties for selling to them.



ROBERT MACKAY.

It is seldom in these days of struggle and ceaseless effort to be foremost in the strife that we find a man at once widely known and respected, and yet possessed of a modesty that would fain shun that notice which is the just need of desert. Such an one is the subject of this sketch, and to get possession of the personal data and biographical facts necessary for this brief notice is a task which had well-nigh baffled the writer. Intimate friends were unable to furnish these, and only a very bare outline has been obtained.

Mr. Robert Mackay was born in Kildonan, Scotland, in 1839, or 1840, and is now therefore about fifty-six or seven years of age. He came to this country in boyhood, and was educated in Montreal, and afterwards entered the employ of Joseph Mackay & Brother as a clerk. That well-known and substantial house was then conducted by his uncles, the late Mr. Joseph Mackay, and Mr. Edward Mackay, who were indeed the founders of the business, having established it in 1840, under the name of Joseph Mackay & Brother, afterwards Mackay Brothers, which name was retained during the existence of the house.

The rare aptitude for business displayed by the young Robert was speedily recognized, and he was admitted as a partner in the firm.

The firm of Mackay Brothers had been always recognized as an important factor in the development of the commercial life of the Canadian metropolis. The names of the Mackay Brothers have been identified with all progressive measures tending towards the city's improvement, or the extension of its trade. Theirs is a singularly honourable record, and their name has long been a watchword for all that is noble and inspiring in civic or commercial life.

Mr. Robert Mackay is true to the family traditions; a whole-souled and genial friend, a straightforward and thorough man of business, and a public-spirited citizen, he is in the truest sense a representative man. He possesses in no ordinary measure the confidence of his fellow citizens.

Mr. Mackay is connected in Montreal with several large concerns. Among these may be mentioned the Montreal Gas Company, of which he is a Director, and the Bell Telephone Company of Canada, (of which he is Vice-President), Merchants Manufacturing Company and other industrial and mercantile companies.

He is Past President of St. Andrew's Society.

It is interesting to know that Mr. Mackay's beautiful residence on Sherbrooke street, Montreal, is named "Kildonan," after the spot in old Scotia, whence the family came. It is one of the most charmingly situated homes in the city, and is surrounded by spacious grounds. The house has been famed for hospitality, and many a visitor relates in distant circles his memories of the graceful kindness that made a stay at "Kildonan" a thing to be remembered.

For many years the business had been conducted by the nephews, James, Robert and Hugh, (their uncles having retired) but the same manly, steady, reliable and solid business methods laid down by the founders of the establishment were retained. James and Hugh having gone to their eternal rest, the business for several years had been conducted solely by Robert, up to a year ago, when he retired from business and wound up the grand old house.

The subject of this sketch, along with his deceased brothers, James and Hugh Mackay, has endowed a chair in McGill University, in memory of the late Mr. Edward Mackay. Robert Mackay is in politics, as well as in everything else, a staunch Liberal, who identifies himself in every contest that takes place in Montreal and the surrounding country. He is one of the leading men of the party in Montreal, and although very unostentatious in character, it is safe to say that in the near future well-earned honors will be bestowed on one of the most respected citizens of the Canadian metropolis, in the person of Robert Mackay.

MONTREAL CITY AND DISTRICT SAVINGS BANK.

This bank was founded in 1846, under most happy auspices, its establishment having the hearty sympathy and good-will of those who, having an interest in the welfare of the poorer classes, saw in this scheme a practical means of assistance for the poor. The charitable character of the undertaking obtained for it the patronage of Monseigneur Bourget, the then Bishop of Montreal.

Fifteen Managing Directors were chosen from some sixty Honorary Directors. They were:—William Workman, Alfred LaRocque, Joseph Bourret, L. H. Holton, Francis Hincks, Damase Masson, Henry Mulholland, Pierre Beaubien, Henry Judah, Charles Wilson, Joseph Grenier, John E. Mills, Nelson Davis, John Tully, Jacob DeWitt, and L. T. Drummond.

An important and sagacious decision, which has resulted well both for the bank and its clientele, was that no portion of the bank's funds should be invested in mortgages. Years of financial operation have evidenced the prudence of this rule.

Two years after its with a mishap, which the alone saved from becoming without stock or accum-secure deposits, and the danger, subscribed their sudden loss which resulted Bank stock. This act of bank, and enabled it at a loss. It was a season of the state of matters abroad perity of the City and Dis-temporary lull in its pro-each year showed a remark-gress, except the years 1854-amount due depositors was depositors was 9,362, with each depositor.

In 1871 a change was giving greater security to to create sufficient stock to the possibility of losing their the interest on deposits had bank's accumulated profits. bank was fixed at \$2,000,-that the books of the bank whatever profits existed at the time were to form a Poor Fund, to be invested in Municipal or Government Debentures, the interest to be divided among the various charitable societies of the city.

The accumulated profits of the City and District Savings Bank, when the stock was subscribed, was \$180,000, which constitutes the Poor Fund.

The bank has had its vicissitudes and changes, and to-day, from being a purely benevolent institution, it has been converted into a Joint-Stock concern. It distributes annually \$10,800 among the charitable institutions of the city, being the interest on \$180,000 in Debentures, which have been put aside for the purpose.

The subscribed capital of the bank is \$2,000,000; its paid-up capital is \$600,000; while the reserve is \$400,000. The number of depositors is 48,676, and the amount of deposits \$8,900,000. The Directors at the present time are:—Hon. Edward Murphy, president; R. Bellemare, vice-president; Sir W. H. Hingston, M.D.; James O'Brien, Hon. J. A. O. Ouimet, E. J. Barbeau, F. T. Judah, John H. R. Molson, Hon. J. A. Chapleau, Sir Joseph Hickson, and Henri Barbeau, manager, who, during his long connection with the Bank, has given evidence of the tact and business abilities which eminently fit him for the management of such an important institution.

The bank's head office is at 176 St. James street; branch offices are:—656 Notre Dame street, East; 2312 Notre Dame street, West; 1532 St. Catherine street, East; and corner of Grand Trunk and Shearer streets.



foundation the bank met devotion of the Directors a disaster. The bank was later profits at the time to Directors, in the hour of names to notes to meet the from a depreciation of City the Directors saved the future time to make up the financial depression, and affected for a time the pro-strict Savings Bank, but the gress was soon over, and ably rapid and steady pro-55 and 1857. In 1870 the \$2,880,769; the number of an average of \$307.68 for

effected for the purpose of depositors, it being decided place the depositors beyond earnings. Previous to this depended merely upon the The capital stock of the 000, and it was stipulated should be balanced, and

TARIFF AND WAGES.*

BY F. W. TAUSSIG,

Instructor in Political Economy in Harvard College.

THE general question of free trade and protection has been treated in a previous chapter (Book III. Chapter VI). One argument for protection was not mentioned there, which is much urged by protectionist in the United States—the argument that protection is necessary to maintain the high wages paid in this country. It is said by the advocates of protection that the competition of articles made by ill-paid laborers in Europe would reduce, if free trade were established, the prices of articles made in this country, and that wages must fall correspondingly. Professor Laveleye did not mention this argument, because it is not advanced by protectionists in Europe. On the contrary, in Germany and France high duties are demanded in order to protect the ill-paid laborers of those countries from the competition of the better paid laborers of England. This fact shows sufficiently that low wages in themselves do not enable a country to compete in another country, and that high wages do not prevent it from competing; otherwise England could not compete on the continent of Europe. The truth of the matter in this country is, that in those branches of industry to which we can most advantageously direct our labor and capital, the laborers produce a large product, and employers can afford to pay them high wages. If in a given branch of industry, these high wages cannot be afforded, this industry is one which it is not advantageous for our country to undertake. Agricultural laborers in the United States are paid much higher wages than such laborers receive in any European country. Yet nobody believes that the wheat and grain produced by the ill-paid laborers of Europe can be imported hither in competition with our own wheat and grain; everybody knows that, on the contrary, we export these products to Europe. The reason is that the United States have great advantages for raising agricultural products; hence high wages are and can be paid to the laborers producing them. The general high rate of wages with us is due fundamentally to the great general productiveness of labor, which, again, is due in part to the energy and efficiency of our laborers, in part to the extended use of machinery, and in a very large part to our great natural resources. It is in no sense due to the protective policy. If in making particular commodities, for instance, silk goods, such high wages cannot be paid to laborers under a system of free trade, it is a proof that it is not worth while for us to make silks. We can get laborers in Europe to make silks for us at the low rates of pay which prevail there. We can employ our own laborers, who are now making silks, in producing other commodities—for instance, grain or cotton goods. In producing the grain or cottons our laborers are advantageously employed; and in exchange for these commodities we can get from the foreign laborers more silks than our domestic laborers can produce at home.

* Supplementary Chapter in *Laveleye's Political Economy*.

A. T. L. LEPINE.

ALPHONSE TELESPHORE LEGRIS LEPINE, member of the Dominion Parliament for Montreal East, is the son of Charles Lepine, master plasterer, of the City of Quebec. His mother's name was Eleonore Lessard.

The subject of our sketch was born in Quebec, May 13th, 1855. He received an excellent commercial education in the schools of the Christian Brothers, and upon obtaining manhood decided to become a printer.

He practised his trade both in his native city and in Lévis during several years.

As has been the case with so many talented men who have followed a printers' calling, it but proved a stepping-stone to a journalistic career, and we find him later, during a period of seven years, acting as sub-editor of the *Quotidien de Lévis*.

In June of 1885 he removed to Montreal, and shortly afterwards set up in this city a printing establishment, of which he is sole proprietor. His ability and well-directed energy soon made this venture a success.

As a member of the Typographical Union and of the Canadian Institute of Lévis, Mr. Lepine had had abundant occasion to look into and study Socialistic and Labor questions. At the time of his removal to Montreal, the order of the was shortly to assume so the working population of itself known.

Mr. Lepine made himself with the rules, spirit, and and without giving to all of fied approval, he perceived in advancing the cause of threw himself with characment, both by his voice—cause, and also through the —of a journal which he *Le Trait d'Union*. This nized as a most important ment.

Mr. Lepine's public were not destined to escape ber of 1888 he was returned House of Commons to fill a death of Mr. C. J. Coursol.

He was re-elected at In politics Mr. Lepine vative.

Mr. Lepine married in 1883, at Lévis, Alexandrine Scott, a native of Liverpool, Eng.

The strength of Mr. Lepine's hold upon the workingmen who are his constituents was well brought out in his election in 1888. The Liberals put forward one of their strongest candidates, Mr. A. E. Poirier, but after an exceedingly hot contest, the labor candidate—in every sense the people's choice—was elected.

The same thing was repeated in 1891, when Mr. L. O. David was defeated by Mr. Lepine, with a majority of a thousand votes.

An unquestionable interest attaches to the personality of the man who so wins the confidence of his poorer and less fortunate fellows, that to overthrow him as their chosen representative is impossible. His sympathy must have proved itself true, his heart must be large, and his word sure, ere he can be so established in the esteem and confidence of the people. That Mr. Lepine's political career has, in every way, justified this confidence, is too well-known to require asseveration. His whole course has been such as to elevate him in the esteem of all.

In commenting upon the remarkable career of this successful Canadian, it is impossible to overlook the influence exerted upon his fortunes by the magnetism of his own personality. He is a man formed for popularity. Genial, liberal and benevolent, he has a key to all hearts, and when the public confidence is thus won, the object of public esteem is an easy conqueror. Mr. Lepine is emphatically a man for the people.



self thoroughly acquainted aims of this organization, its regulations an unequalled part that it might play Canadian Workingmen. He teristic ardor into the move-frequently uplifted in the influence—most efficacious founded about this time, sheet was very soon recog-factor in the new move-

spirit, his talent and energy, observation, and in Septem-by Montreal East to the vacancy created by the

the last General Elections. is an Independent-Conser-

THE LANG MANUFACTURING COMPANY.

THE Lang Manufacturing Company, founded eight years ago, has, since that date, by good, sound, common sense management, energy and skill, succeeded in building up a trade and reputation second to none.

Their premises are admirably situated, being eminently suited to their purpose, and fitted with every modern appliance for making and producing the best quality of biscuits, confectionery, etc.

They employ one hundred and fifty operatives who, under the supervision of competent foremen, are constantly employed making up stock.

All goods turned out by the Lang people are first-class, the best quality flour, spices, flavors, and other materials being used, and no deleterious ingredients are allowed to enter into the composition of any of their products.

Amongst the well-known brands of biscuits made by this establishment are the Abernethy, Fruit, Jam-Jam, Cocomanut, Sultana, Zephyr, Lemon, Ladies'-Fingers, Buttercup, Butter-Scotch, Macaroons, French Buns, Cracknel, Cream Drops, Jelly Fruit, and many others. Besides biscuit baking, they make a complete line of candies, such as Chocolate Creams, Mixed Candy, Acid Drops, Caramels, and all other varieties usually in demand by retailers, the best and purest sugar, coloring matter, and other material being used, so that the quality of these goods can be guaranteed.

The trade of the Lang Manufacturing Company extends throughout the whole Dominion, and requires the constant services of a number of agents and travellers to supply the needs of such a wide-spread area. The members of the firm are well-known in commercial circles in Montreal as men of energy and ability, who are well-suited to the conduct of a large and constantly growing business such as theirs.

W. STRACHAN & CO.

MESSRS. W. STRACHAN & CO., have achieved a success in their line unparalleled in the history of Canadian industries. Their famous "Gilt Edge" Soap affords proof of this honorable old firm's assertion that they hold permanently the highest standard of excellence, both as to purity and quality of ingredients. This business dates back to 1830, when it was founded by Mr. William Christie. After various changes Mr. William Strachan became sole proprietor under the existing name and style. Mr. Strachan was born in Canada of Scottish parentage, and for eighteen years has had the absolute control and proprietorship of this flourishing concern. His soap factory and oil works are located at Nos. 36 to 40 Jacques Cartier street, a substantial three-storey and basement brick building, fitted up throughout with all the latest improved machinery and requisites for the work. Soaps of all kinds are here manufactured from the choicest of materials only. The principal brand of "Gilt Edge" Laundry Soap has become a household word throughout the entire Dominion, and deservedly so, for no other soap has proved so desirable or economical in use. It is justly celebrated for its purity, for absence of any ingredient deleterious to the skin or to clothes, and for its remarkable cleaning properties. Mr. Strachan has always adopted the motto, "The best pays in the end," and consequently has never manufactured anything but *the best*. From a small beginning this house has grown to be one of the leaders in its line in Canada. They are also large manufacturers of lubricating oils, making a specialty of pressed lard oil, of which they export large quantities to England and the continent of Europe. The lubricants produced by Messrs. Strachan & Co. are noticeable for their absolute purity, and freedom from all grit or acids. They have the highest fire test, and lowest cold test of any in the market, and possess the greatest viscosity, being much the most economical and perfect lubricants for cylinders, engines and all fast running machinery. Wherever once introduced these oils are much preferred by machinery users. Mr. Strachan is Vice-President of the Canada Meat Packing Co., the President and a heavy shareholder in the Montreal Stock Yards Co.; and was President of the West End Abattoirs previous to their being transferred to the Corporation of Montreal. He is also Vice-President of the Edwardsburg Starch Company and of the Banque Ville-Marie, and is recognized as a sound, conservative financier. He is active in philanthropic and charitable work, being a governor of the Montreal General Hospital, and governor of the Protestant Hospital for the Insane, and a liberal contributor to numerous charities. His achievements as a manufacturer entitle him to the gratitude of the public. "Cleanliness is next to Godliness," reads the old proverb, and certainly Strachan's "Gilt Edge" Soap is the most important factor toward insuring perfect cleanliness, and that the people understand this is amply demonstrated by reason of its enormous and annually increasing sales.

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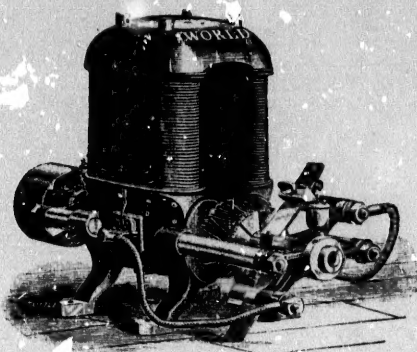
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